

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LXII

\*

OCTOBER 1954

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Number 7

## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### BRICKBATS AND BOUQUETS

BUSY TEACHERS and administrators must tire of the exaggerated and often grossly ignorant criticisms made of their work in particular and of American public education generally. Yet *listening* to it is an essential part of their job, for misrepresentations must be corrected, and remedies sought for well-grounded strictures. Fortunately it seems that since last fall the worst has been said and that now there is no other way but "up."

One familiar critic of American education who is always worth listening to is Robert Maynard Hutchins, whose lectures given in 1953 at the University of Chicago, under the auspices of the Charles R. Walgreen Foundation for the Study of American Institutions, were published by the University's Press under the title *The University of Utopia*. Mr. Hutchins sees, as one result of our increasing specialization, an ever grow-

ing need for the kind of wisdom which he believes is best fostered by a liberal education. This liberal education is founded upon a mastery of the basic techniques of communication, which should be acquired in the first ten years of formal education, when "the young Utopian studies history, geography, and the greatest literature of the world," a foreign language, and science. (Mr. Hutchins reveals here a certain lack of familiarity with the terminology for current elementary-school programs by remarking that the Utopians "do not bother inexperienced children with what are called the social studies.")

By the age of sixteen the young Utopian has studied very few subjects; but he has studied all those appropriate to his time of life. The object has been to get him to go on studying them as long as he lives. The object has also been to fit him to understand any new idea or any new field. . . . And the great overruling object has been to prepare him to become a member of the republic of learning and of the political republic. . . .

At the age of sixteen, or earlier if he is ready for it, the Utopian passes into the College. Here he continues to study history, geography, literature, science, music, and art, but the emphasis shifts from learning the techniques of communication to obtaining familiarity with the principal views of the world that men have developed and the leading ideas that have animated mankind. The curriculum from the beginning of the elementary school through the College is completely prescribed for all the students. . . . The Utopians have heard of the American plan, by which a certain number of courses, whatever they are, finally add up to a degree, but the Utopians are, as I have said, a sensible people, and the credit system has never been introduced among them. This is one of the things that makes the country Utopia.

Somewhere between the ages of eighteen and twenty, or whenever he is ready, the Utopian presents himself for examinations that cover the whole of his education up to that point. . . . If the student passes these examinations, he is awarded the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The Utopians have never been confused about the award of this degree at this stage, because the degree has never been debased into a certificate of time served, or credits accumulated, or a license to enter a graduate school, or a qualification for membership in the University Club.

Mr. Hutchins' criticisms of our educational system are implicit but sufficiently clear in this statement of Utopian education. He goes on to explain that the University of Utopia devotes itself primarily to the clarification of philosophical differences, leaving technical instruction to special institutions or to the several trades and professions. To get to Utopia, Mr. Hutchins assures us, we Americans have only to want it and to act in accordance with our own deepest values since—

the deepest values of the American tradition are the deepest values of the West. They are the values of Utopia. . . .

The leading articles of American faith are universal suffrage, universal education, independence of thought and action as the birthright of every individual, and reliance on reason as the principal means by which society is to be advanced.

There are, of course, two obvious difficulties with Mr. Hutchins' suggestions, at least for the immediate future. The first is that most American educators have indicated—by word, deed, and inaction—that they do not consider Mr. Hutchins' educational prescription relevant or, if relevant, practicable. The recent abandonment of the single, prescribed program for all its students by the College of the University of Chicago underscores that point, though, one might add, without prejudice to the *educational* merits of the unified curriculum. And many of us who do agree, in the main, with Mr. Hutchins' educational ideas and methods have concluded that more progress toward their partial realization here and now will be made by operating within the accepted institutional pattern of American education. The "Kenyon plan" for co-operation between selected colleges and secondary schools illustrates this approach.

A second difficulty is that Mr. Hutchins' selection of American values seems a bit arbitrary and limited. Some of us are old-fashioned enough to see in universal suffrage—as "universal" as it has here become—a means to a basic value rather than the value itself. More serious are the

issues of the valid limits upon "independence of action" and of the means of achieving the degree of unity and community which any tolerable society must have. A beginning of an answer to this last issue is suggested in a 1953 address, "On Re-thinking Liberal Education," given by Harry D. Gideonse, president of Brooklyn College, to the Eighteenth Educational Conference held under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education, and published in the report of the conference, *Strengthening Education at All Levels* (American Council on Education, 1953. \$1.50). President Gideonse stressed the need for a liberal education which will lay the groundwork for the making of *responsible* choices—which will be concerned with "the supreme intellectual obligation of clarifying the *sources of responsibility* in a free society." Some useful specifics to this end were offered by President Gideonse two years ago and cited, in part, in this column, in November, 1952.

Other specifics are suggested by a bit of nonprofessional reading recommended for next summer (if you can wait that long): Jacques Barzun's *God's Country and Mine: A Declaration of Love Spiced with a Few Harsh Words* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1954. \$5.00). Professor Barzun's French childhood, his American education, his deep interest in ideas, and his keen observation and critical insight combine to make him a superb commentator on the American scene, particularly on that species of our

critics whom he labels the "professional European." Some readers will enjoy even more Professor Barzun's description of a certain attitude found among a few of our more sophisticated "intellectuals":

At the moment, under the impact of world events, Americans have so violently put aside what they have been taught to shun as "wishful thinking" that they have taken up "dreadful thinking." They think they will surely be right if they predict the worst; they groan at every mishap or misdeed in the country; they exalt the power of those whom they declare public enemies, saying that all is over, the forces of darkness are closing in. At the same time, they grant foreign nations every right to be peculiar, and will explain others' blunders by ancient cultural privilege, meanwhile denying us a comparable latitude. All they ask of their country is perfection and absolute justice. Indignation is of course their natural element, heavily fortified with ignorance.

Professor Barzun lets drop a few harsh words about the "extremism" of the modern American school but adds appreciation of its effort to teach a whole people how to live under modern conditions. And he makes a suggestion which most of us would do well to incorporate into our mental processes:

In thinking about society we should bring to bear at least two contrary perceptions or ideas. . . . Our minds should be able to hold two opposite ideas and use them both at once. . . .

This is not the middle-of-the-road position nor the passive acknowledgment that there is much to be said on both sides; it is rather the habit of acknowledging that contradictory co-exist and make valid claims that cannot be dismissed without taking precautions or paying ransom.

### IS AMERICAN EDUCATION DEMOCRATIC?

WE ARE HABITUATED to the criticisms which Mr. Hutchins and Mr. Barzun make, but the negative answer to the question, "Is American education democratic?" is unusual. Yet such is the answer of a neighbor and friend, N. V. Scarfe, dean of education of the University of Manitoba, appearing in *School and Society* for June 26, 1954. His indictment, in summary, is as follows:

American education would . . . seem to be undemocratic because it retains the rigid grade and credit system, because of its overemphasis on the importance of social conformity in the mental sphere rather than on individual excellence, and because the people allow politicians rather than teachers to control their schools. There is little education for freedom in schools, and little self-discipline in the home. There is little equality of opportunity, because children are heterogeneously jumbled together and given a uniform type of instruction rather than education, thus ignoring their individual differences and needs.

Obviously Dean Scarfe has a somewhat different understanding of the meaning of "democracy" from that of most Americans. In fact, his idea of democracy will seem to many to smack overmuch both of "aristocracy" and of an extreme form of "individualism," and, when he asserts that "democracy places absolute trust in the human conscience, and cannot accept force or might in the settlement of disputes," of an anarchical utopianism. Nevertheless, his comments deserve serious consideration. He very

properly stresses, as the hallmark distinguishing democracy from either fascism or communism, the right of the individual to be different. Furthermore, he recalls to us the old idea that "democracy does not always accept majority views and may rely on those of trusted experts, for democracy extols reason above fanaticism, intellect above emotion, individual excellence above group conformity."

In the body of his article Dean Scarfe argues for what he calls the "third way" in educational philosophy: between the path of the "traditional educational idealist" and that of the followers of John Dewey. Both groups will, of course, be outraged by the charge that they overemphasize social conformity and "worry too much about quantity and too little about quality." On the positive side, Dean Scarfe suggests that we implement the pragmatism of Charles Peirce and that we in the United States need—

a reasonable, mature, and balanced school system free of political control to train critical and dynamically thoughtful citizens for high-quality intellectual culture. *Improvement in the efficiency of teaching methods in the widest sense, not merely change in curriculum content, is still urgently necessary.*

### ARE GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIALIZATION OPPOSED?

THERE are respectable circles in which merely to ask this question is to raise doubts as to the speaker's educational soundness or sanity. For that very reason it is stimulating to



read a short report on English secondary and university education by Professor T. C. Mendenhall, of Yale University, in *School and Society* of July 10. Professor Mendenhall argues that a large measure of what we Americans understand to be "general education" is there gained through the pursuit of specialized studies in the "sixth form" of the "grammar schools" and in the undergraduate curriculums of the universities.

According to Professor Mendenhall, the English university, unlike some leading American colleges, feels no obligation to make special provision for general education, for the excellent reason that its students have already had one. In the first five forms of the English grammar school, the student has had a general academic program consisting of English, history, geography, science, mathematics, Latin, and one or two other foreign languages. Then, before he goes to the university, the student must complete the work of the sixth form, where specialization occupies about half of his time. By the time they are ready for this capstone of the grammar school, "all British students who have any hope of going to college have had more and gone further in English, history, science, mathematics, and foreign languages than many American college students ever do." And they certainly have taken more examinations—perhaps too many, as Professor Mendenhall hints. We must always remember, however, that only a small elite selection of the second-

ary-school age group (12–13 per cent) receive this kind of education. And for only 2–4 per cent of the age group of sixteen to twenty does this specialization continue into the university.

But a close reading of Professor Mendenhall's article reveals that it is probably not so much the specialization as the methods of teaching which make this "special" education general. Students read on assigned topics, meet individually or in small groups with tutors (from the sixth form on), and write weekly essays which are meticulously criticized and discussed with the student. At several stages, essay examinations demand that the student recall, organize, think, and write about the subjects he has studied. In other words, an initial selection of high-ability students, a low teaching load for highly qualified teachers, and study in a mature content field provide a high-level education.

Two other comments may be made. First, the English system is "democratic" in Dean Scarfe's sense of the word, in that the English do not permit the presumption that most of an age group are unable to profit from a sternly "academic" education to deprive those students who can profit from it from doing so. This would seem to be a reasonable interpretation of two principles to which more lip service than heed is paid in this country, namely, the educational principle of providing for individual differences and the social principle of equality of opportunity. And that group which is selected for this educa-

tion in England is not transferred to a separate administrative unit every two or three years but has a unified elementary, secondary, and university education in three distinct but closely related stages. In this system the higher unit can build on the lower, because both the content and the level of work done further down are ascertainable, and studies are arranged to promote sequential learning. It seems to this writer that the educational reforms we need are just as simple and just as difficult as this analysis suggests. As Dean Scarfe says, it is not content but *method*, in its widest sense, which is crucial.

This tentative conclusion gains some support from an account of an interesting general-education course at Lawrence College, which is described by Anne Prioleau Jones in the *Educational Record* for July, 1954. Its originator, Nathan M. Pusey, now president of Harvard University, stated the aim of the course as follows:

Freshmen also need to learn that they can read a book, whole books, not just digests or assigned chapters in a textbook. They need to know that they can read *great* books, understand much of them, and enjoy them. They need to read different kinds of books to learn that one reads differently in different fields. They need to learn that these books have significance for them in their own lives.

As the course was worked out, every Freshman took it in lieu of the traditional "Freshman English." Over the past six years, somewhat more than half of the faculty have taught in it, wrestling with books far removed from their own fields and, still more diffi-

cult, trying to teach the Freshman to express himself with cogency and clarity. The scope of the reading, and of the lectures, discussion, and writing based thereon, is suggested by a list of books agreed upon for 1953-54: *Walden*; *Huckleberry Finn*; Plato's *Republic* (with *The Apology* as a supplement); selections from *The Origin of Species* and *The Descent of Man*; John Stuart Mill's *On Liberty*; *The Communist Manifesto*; Bertrand Russell's *Impact of Science on Society*; St. Paul's First Epistle to the Corinthians; Kierkegaard's *For Self-examination*; Sophocles' *Oedipus Rex*; and T. S. Eliot's *Murder in the Cathedral*. It is not surprising that outsiders, looking for a central theme, do not find it, for, as Professor Jones says, "it is the growth of the student mind in awareness, sensitivity, and perception that is the real preoccupation of the course" (and, one might suspect, a similar growth in those who teach). The most regrettable thing about this course is that so few students have such an opportunity, that rarely is such work done below the college level, and infrequently there. Surely there is an idea here for "honors work" for able high-school Seniors, adapted, of course, to local conditions.

For other recent writings on general education, the reader is referred to *General Education: Bibliography* prepared by Elizabeth N. Layton (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 3. \$0.15), in which are cited most of the important writings in this country for the period 1949 to 1953.

## ARE WE LISTENING?

TO WHAT EXTENT do we *listen*, not merely *hear*? And how do we improve our listening abilities? Can and should listening be taught? These fundamental issues are raised and competently discussed by Professor Sam Duker, of Brooklyn College, in the *Educational Forum* for May, 1954. Duker says that interest in listening has led to research which establishes "that very few of us are truly efficient listeners, that the quality of listening can be improved by instruction, and that unguided practice just does not do the job."

But, as Professor Duker suggests, the teaching of listening is not now getting the attention it should where it should: in our elementary and secondary schools. When such teaching is provided, we must all remember that, in teaching listening just as much as in teaching reading and writing, we want to develop critical thinking and that doing so may be more difficult there than anywhere else:

A good listener . . . distinguishes that which he is listening to from his own background of knowledge about the subject, while a poor listener may be ready to jump to the conclusion that that which he is hearing is that which he already knows or believes . . . in the latter case there is no real communication taking place, as the listener merely construes everything that he hears as an echo of his already fixed ideas and opinions. . . .

In a democracy where important issues ultimately must be resolved by the citizenry it is of utmost importance that the channels of communication be kept wide open. This can only be done if the participants in this process possess the highest degree of

skill. Effective listening is one element necessary to such a high degree of skill.

## THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*In upper-secondary education* Probably the most important publication of the past year in the field of social-studies teaching is *Skills in Social Studies*, noted in these columns last April. A close second in importance for upper-secondary education, however, is *Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years* (William G. Tyrrell, editor. Curriculum Series, No. 8, National Council for the Social Studies, 1953. \$2.00). As one would expect, the bulletin presents a sample of several main patterns of integrated courses and some minor variations thereof. In general, the historical, the present-issues, and the problems approaches predominate. Some of the most important experiments are not represented, though their influence—notably those of Columbia University, the University of Chicago, and Yale University—is very evident. Reading materials range from high-school and introductory college textbooks through a variety of primary sources to whole-volume readings at several levels. Courses range in scope from narrowly conceived offerings in history and government to the excellent two-year integrated sequence in the humanities and the social sciences at Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Paul L. Dressel's chapter on evaluation summarizes neatly the best of the recent literature and experience relevant to the social studies.

Probably the most useful chapter in this bulletin for most teachers of the social studies is that by Professor Ralph Adams Brown, of the State Teachers College at Cortland, New York, in which current practices in the selection and use of reading materials are analyzed. Brown confirms the well-known fact that most courses on this level, whether "integrated" or not, rely far too much on textbooks and lectures, though, in moderation and properly used, both are, in this editorial writer's opinion, "good things." Apparently many students in the junior-college years have previously acquired poor reading habits and a distaste for anything called "social studies" or "social science." Consequently a remedial job must be done, and little time is left for more constructive activities. Nevertheless, Brown calls for a more varied reading program in social-studies courses and advocates the inclusion of both primary and secondary sources, along with some instruction in how to read them. He also proposes that every junior-college student should be required to do one "research problem" and to present it in complete finished form. (One can speculate on the interesting question of where most teachers on this level will find time to plan and criticize such work!) Brown's analysis of the strong and weak points of the leading nonconventional collections of primary sources for use in United States history courses is masterly, though the writer of these notes would say that, for a

decade, superior students of upper-high-school age have learned to read well materials which Professor Brown thinks average junior-college students cannot use to advantage. Of course we may both be right on this point!

*Industrial relations* Teachers of economics in high school and junior college will be equally interested in two articles which appeared in the *Social Studies* last April. Ralph E. McCoy, librarian of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations at the University of Illinois, and Professor Ralph Adams Brown have provided a critical selection and review of the relevant literature for teachers and students of industrial relations. Teachers who want to approach economic thought historically will find most helpful the article on Adam Smith by Professor Laurence E. Leamer, of Harpur College at Endicott, New York.

*Employment for the social scientists* Of special interest to counselors in colleges and in some high schools is *Employment Outlook in the Social Sciences: Fields of Employment, Educational Requirements, Employment Outlook, Earnings* (United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Outlook Series, Bulletin No. 1167. Government Printing Office, 1954. \$0.30). The report "is designed to give young people interested in preparing for careers as social scientists an over-all picture of the basic

social-science fields . . . and the employment opportunities they offer." The report points out that "employment in the basic social sciences has more than tripled in the past fifteen years and is expected to rise over the long run." However, a much slower rate of increase is expected for the immediate future. It should be noted that several groups who take college work in the social sciences, notably high-school social-studies teachers, are not included among the occupations discussed in this bulletin.

*Helpful  
reading  
materials*

The United Nations and UNESCO continue to publish attractive and accurate materials of value for social-studies classes and teachers. Of first importance is the transformation of the fortnightly *United Nations Bulletin* into a monthly, *United Nations Review*. While reporting of United Nations news is continued in the new periodical, stress is upon more detailed accounts of United Nations activities. The first issue (July) is well illustrated and contains informative and well-written articles on reconstruction in Korea, conditions in the Trust Territory of Somaliland and in Libya, and last year's activities in technical assistance. The magazine may be ordered from the authorized United Nations sales agent in this country: International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York, at \$0.40 for a single copy and \$4.50 for an annual subscription.

The United Nations Department of Public Information at New York continues its publication of pamphlet material useful in social-studies collections in libraries and classrooms. These include the following: *The United Nations: The First Eight Years* (very general); two in the series "The United Nations at Work" (No. 8, *Decisions and Prospects for 1954*; and No. 9, *A Year of Tangible Results*. Each \$0.15); and two good booklets on the United Nations technical assistance program, *Pooling Skills for Human Progress* (\$0.15) and *World against Want* (\$0.50).

Very useful for teachers is the UNESCO pamphlet by Harry L. Shapiro, of the American Museum of Natural History, New York, on *Race Mixture* (1953, \$0.25). This work combines scientific accuracy and scholarly care with unusual skill in selecting the general and the specific materials helpful to the pioneering teacher. Particularly effective is Professor Shapiro's use of his own earlier researches into the problem of racial and cultural elements in the heritage of the Pitcairn Island descendants of the famous mutineers of the "Bounty."

For more than forty years *International Conciliation* has been useful for teachers of international relations (New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. \$1.00 a year, \$2.50 for three years). For 1954-55 the five issues of this series will be devoted to the following topics: "Issues before the Ninth General Assem-



bly," "Korean Truce Supervision," "Financing of Economic Development," "The European Coal and Steel Community," "Unity and Disunity in Southeast Asia," and "Self-determination."

#### INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

THROUGH the formal language of government reporting, the 1953 *International Yearbook of Education* (Paris [and] Geneva: UNESCO [and] the International Bureau of Education. \$2.00) chronicles the changes thought worthy of citation as "educational progress" for 1952-53. In general, the reader is impressed with the continuing "squeeze" on educational facilities caused by high birth rates and, in the "underdeveloped areas" of the world, by birth rates and the additional factor of attempting in a short time to universalize literacy. More money (16 per cent on the average) was forthcoming for education, though in some cases this was reduced, in real terms, by inflation. Recent events have invested with a note of pathos the report from Vietnam which revealed much in a few words when it said that, in January, 1952, two decrees had been signed, one making primary education compulsory for children of both sexes from six to fourteen; the second, requiring that, within two years—

all citizens, male or female, aged from thirteen to fifty, should be able to read and write *quốc-gữ* (the Vietnamese language). Immediately after the promulgation of these two decrees, the National Education Department effected a first general census of

all children of school age, and of all citizens from thirteen to fifty years of age.

More cheering is the account of educational developments reported in *Education in Pakistan* by Abul H. K. Sassani (United States Office of Education Bulletin 1954, No. 2. \$0.35). Here the race between education and catastrophe seems to have a fair chance of a better result.

In the UNESCO series "Problems in Education," a useful reference for classes in comparative education has been added in the 340-page volume on *The Education of Teachers in England, France, and the U.S.A.* (Paris: UNESCO, 1953. New York: Columbia University Press. \$2.00). The authors of the three parts are, respectively, C. A. Richardson, Hélène Brûlé, and Harold E. Snyder. The English and American sections discuss the education of both elementary- and secondary-school teachers; the French is limited to the former group. In his Introduction to this work Karl W. Bigelow writes:

The history of all three [countries] demonstrates that in these highly developed democracies universal compulsory education has become a cornerstone of national policy. . . . The thoughtful reader, comparing these different pictures, will, however, be most struck by the common problems and trends . . . [as] the lengthening period of teacher preparation; the mounting problem of maintaining an adequate supply of qualified teachers; the growing emphasis on child study . . . ; the increased awareness of the necessity that teachers be prepared to adjust educational practice to changing social circumstances; the struggle with the problems of what are the best proportions of general and profes-

sional education in the preparation of teachers and of how these components may best be related to one another; the more vivid awareness of the importance of providing continuous opportunities for teachers in service to increase their understanding and competence.

Last year the writer of these notes called attention to the excellent firsthand report of Walter Crosby Eells on Communist influences on education in underdeveloped areas. This work has now been brought up to date and, with three additional chapters, is published in book form under the title *Communism in Education in Asia, Africa, and the Far Pacific* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1954. \$3.00). The new chapters are especially interesting and greatly enhance the value of the work on a subject at once so little understood and so significant. "It was China Yesterday . . ." differs from the other descriptive chapters in that it is necessarily secondhand so far as Dr. Eells is concerned, though its extensive quotation from firsthand sources gives vivid accounts of the "brain-washing" and other Communist methods of control over the minds of men. The introductory chapter discusses the causes of effective Communist influence on education, and the concluding chapter tells what Dr. Eells thinks we can and should do to combat Communist influence on foreign education. Let us look at a few of his specifics.

First, Dr. Eells believes that we must do what we can to remove just causes for criticism abroad of Ameri-

can ways, most particularly, our treatment of non-Caucasians. While awaiting the slow changes to be expected here, he would have recent improvements in these respects described abroad, preferably by members of the disadvantaged groups themselves, on both official and nonofficial missions.

Second, Dr. Eells would have us improve existing government programs for international understanding by such means as keeping our Information Libraries open longer and at more convenient times for their potential users, better display of pro-democracy books and more use of visual materials, longer programs of study for exchange students in America, less concentration of such students in a few urban centers, and, particularly, keeping in contact with such students after they have returned home. Eells points out that the Kremlin understands very well the value of training future leaders indigenous to the areas to be influenced in Communist doctrine and methods; the results of some such training of twenty and thirty years ago have been evident recently in Indo-China and Kenya. We are several decades behind in the race to counteract these forces by leaders who are on our side, so it is not surprising that Dr. Eells calls for increasing fivefold the beneficiaries of our exchange programs, from Asia and Africa at least.

Finally, he makes several suggestions to American colleges and universities, including a plea for greater

stress upon comparative education, for better guidance of foreign students here, and for establishing institutional and personal relationships between American and foreign colleges.

Some concept of the possibilities open to us to influence the rest of the world through our "alumni" is suggested by the data summarized in the June, 1954, *News Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education, from *Education for One World*, the annual census of foreign students in the United States published by IIE. Of the almost 34,000 foreign students in American colleges and universities in 1953-54, about one-third were from five countries, in this order: Canada, China, India, the Philippines, and Japan. Somewhat more than half of them were graduate students. In terms of broad fields of study, the foreign contingent here were distributed as follows: engineering, 20 per cent; humanities, 20 per cent; social sciences, 14 per cent; physical and natural sciences, 12 per cent; medical sciences and business administration (each), 9 per cent; education, 5 per cent; agriculture, 4 per cent. The IIE *News Bulletin* for March, 1954, a special issue on Africa, gives interesting insights into the problems of educating Africans there and here, and summarizes recent trends in the education of Africans in this country.

But just how influential is international exchange of students in making for better understanding among peoples? And what relationship does this rather ambiguous "better understand-

ing" have to the establishment of peaceful conditions in the world? Or, on a more realistic plane, of giving *us* friends in a divided world? Such questions are important, and the answers are largely in the area of subjective opinion. Largely, but not wholly. In the past three years the Social Science Research Council's Committee on Cross-cultural Education has been gathering data on aspects of these and related questions and has been seeking from these data to draw some sound theoretical conclusions, according to M. Brewster Smith in the IIE *News Bulletin* for May. After clearing away the stereotype of "*the* foreign student," the researchers studied several national groups of students here to see in what ways their cultural backgrounds affected their "adjustment" to American conditions. To date, few conclusions of value for our large questions are available, though Cora Du Bois, director of research for IIE, expresses a rather skeptical attitude in an article, "Motivations of Students Coming to the United States," appearing in the IIE *News Bulletin* for June, 1954:

Should cross-cultural education actually contribute to world peace, economic development, and a positive appreciation of the host country, these must be considered fortunate and perhaps almost fortuitous adjuncts.

The contrast between this attitude and the undoubted success which the Kremlin has enjoyed in indoctrinating and training its agents from among all sorts and conditions of men suggests a broadening of the committee's

study. What made a Communist of Ho Chi Minh and, probably, of Jomo Kenyatta? What elements in his American education helped to make a democratic political leader on the Gold Coast of Prime Minister Kwame Nkrumah? What could we do to promote understanding of this country without interfering too much with the special studies for which exchange students come? And how can we best follow up Dr. Eells's suggestion that we keep up the contacts established here after the exchange students have returned home? We need accurate answers to these questions now!

For overseas Chinese the answer to some of these questions for Chinese and other non-Communist youth of Southeast Asia seems in part to be supplied by the new Nanyang (South Seas) University which is to begin work a year from now at Singapore. As *Time* (August 16) reported, Chinese businessmen in Malaya, tired of seeing many of their youth lured to the universities of Red China, raised seven million dollars for this new institution and induced the author Lin Yutang to become its chancellor. Here the youth of all races may study Chinese culture, of pre-Communist

days, and Western learning and thus help to bridge the gap of misunderstanding so common between East and West, and to fortify freedom in the Far East and in the Far Pacific.

As part of the Educational Exchange Program of the United States Department of State, twenty-three graduates of American colleges, almost all of whom plan to teach, are going to Germany to spend a year as teaching assistants in German secondary schools. There they will participate in workshops in American literature, in classes in English conversation, and will take part in extracurriculum affairs. Thus we are at last doing what the French did in the later forties in their occupied zone of Germany, where every secondary school had its young French apprentice teacher helping the German teacher of the language and, one may suspect, making himself useful in other ways. Fortunately this exchange is on a basis of equality and in an atmosphere in which learning should be a real "two-way street."

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## WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

*Authors of news notes and articles* The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT E. KEOHANE, chairman of the Department of Social Sciences, Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois. WILLIAM S. GRAY, professor of education at the University of Chicago and director of reading research at that institution, describes the results of a study to determine the attributes of mature reading as disclosed by an analysis of the reading habits of a selected group of successful, civic-minded, well-informed, and widely read adults. HUGH B. WOOD, professor of education at the University of Oregon, now on duty in Nepal under a contract for teacher education executed between the University of Oregon and the United States Foreign Operations Administration (1954-55), gives an overview of secondary education in India and describes some of the major problems confronting it today. VERA FLORY, teacher of English at Chaffey Union High School, Ontario, California, presents convincing arguments for accrediting the production of the annual high-school yearbook as an academic course. GERALDINE JOANNE MURPHY, teacher of English in the Watertown Senior High School, Watertown, Massachusetts, discusses some of the limitations of present-day

secondary schools in meeting the needs of gifted children and suggests improvements in curriculum, methods, and teacher preparation. L. B. EZELL, assistant professor of educational administration at the University of Texas, and PAUL COLEMAN, JR., a graduate student at the same institution, bring to light some of the hidden costs of a high-school education in Texas schools. PAUL B. JACOBSON, dean of the School of Education at the University of Oregon, and ROBERT R. WIEGMAN, assistant professor of education, Portland State Extension Center, Oregon State System of Higher Education, present a list of references on the organization and administration of secondary education.

*Reviewers of books* PROCTER THOMSON, assistant professor of economics and education at the University of Chicago. LOUISE L. TYLER, Office of Student Examinations, Chicago Teachers College. D. K. BRACE, chairman of the Department of Physical and Health Education, University of Texas. ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education, director of vocational guidance and placement, and assistant dean of students at the University of Chicago.



# THE NATURE OF MATURE READING<sup>1</sup>

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IN ANY EFFORT to improve reading among capable learners, we need to define clearly the kind of readers we hope to develop. As a possible aid to this end, we shall consider briefly some of the qualities that distinguish mature readers, since a knowledge of their characteristics may help to identify desirable goals that we should seek to achieve in guiding the reading activities of capable learners.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF MATURE READERS

As one reviews the literature of this field, one discovers at once that the word *mature* is variously defined. To some writers it means the final goal in development. To others it means a combination of traits that make for full, rich, and efficient living with abundant capacity for on-going development. The latter concept is adopted here because it provides a more stimulating and dynamic guide

than the former to constructive effort with capable learners at various levels of school progress.

A second fact revealed by the literature is that few comprehensive analyses of the characteristics of mature readers have been prepared. Most writers tend to focus attention on particular aspects of maturity in reading—aspects which relate to their specialized interests or to the problems with which they are immediately concerned. In approaching the problem of this paper, it seems advisable to examine briefly a few such statements.

In his book entitled *How To Become a Better Reader*,<sup>2</sup> Witty is concerned with those aspects of reading that merit emphasis if an ineffective, immature reader is to become an efficient, mature reader. In an effort to provide a simple, practical guide for teachers, he focuses attention on two basic aspects of reading; namely, clear grasp of meaning and speed of reading. Within this framework Witty identifies the following characteristics of an efficient reader: he reads for a purpose; he has a wide meaning vocabulary; he reads in thought-units; he

<sup>1</sup> Address presented on June 29, 1954, at the Seventeenth Annual Conference on Reading held at the University of Chicago. All the papers given at the conference will appear in *Promoting Maximal Growth among Able Learners*. Compiled and edited by Helen M. Robinson. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 81. Chicago: University of Chicago Press (in press).

<sup>2</sup> Paul Witty, *How To Become a Better Reader*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953.

evaluates what he reads; he reads widely and enjoys reading; he reads many types of material; he adjusts his speed of reading to the kind of material read. Experience shows that such an outline, if broadly interpreted, may serve as a valuable guide in identifying the reading deficiencies of capable learners and in promoting greater reading efficiency among them.

A second example is based on the 1951 proceedings of this conference.<sup>3</sup> At that time teachers, reading specialists, and psychologists discussed at length the issues involved in promoting growth toward maturity in interpreting what is read. The fact was emphasized repeatedly that the mature reader has acquired many compelling motives for reading and focuses his attention on the meaning of what he reads. The conferees were agreed that the competent, or mature, reader exhibits the following attainments:

1. He perceives words quickly, accurately, and independently. He has acquired the understandings, attitudes, and skills involved in recognizing both meanings and pronunciations and is able to make efficient application of the skills as needed.

2. He secures a clear grasp of the meaning of what he reads. This includes not only a recognition of the literal meaning of passages but also the sensing of implied meanings and ability to make generalizations and

to reach conclusions on the basis of the facts presented. At each step in this process the mature reader makes use of all that he knows or can find out that helps to clarify and enrich the meaning of the passages read.

3. He reacts thoughtfully to what he reads. He adopts an inquiring attitude toward such items as the completeness, relevance, and accuracy of the information presented; the adequacy of the author's treatment of a topic; the validity of the generalizations presented; and, at times, the rhetorical effectiveness and the literary quality of the material read. In reaching conclusions concerning such matters, the mature reader makes use of objective criteria or applies rational standards of judgment. As a result of this total process he acquires not only an intellectual grasp of the material read but an emotional apprehension of its value and significance.

4. As the foregoing processes occur, the efficient reader integrates the ideas acquired through reading with previous experiences so that wrong concepts are corrected, new insights are acquired, broader interest and rational attitudes are developed, and a richer and more stable personality is acquired. The fact was emphasized repeatedly throughout the conference that, unless a reader is highly efficient in all four aspects of interpretation, he is more or less ineffective and immature.

A third example is concerned specifically with maturity in personal reading. In *The Art of Book Reading*, Center<sup>4</sup> conceives the mature reader as one who reads with "intelligent delight." Center is concerned not only with reading for pleasure but with reading for information and understanding as well. She maintains that two essential characteristics of

<sup>3</sup> *Promoting Growth toward Maturity in Interpreting What Is Read*. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 74. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951.

<sup>4</sup> Stella Center, *The Art of Book Reading*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952.

a mature reader are "an irresistible compulsion to read" and an ability to interpret with breadth and penetration any kind of material from which pleasure and profit may be derived. Of large importance in this connection is ability to adjust both the mode of interpretation and the speed of reading to the kind of material read. Center also points out the tendency of mature readers to read intensively in at least one selected area and to make use of a wide background of direct and vicarious experience in the interpretation of all that they read.

If space permitted, reference could be made to other characteristics of mature readers, such as those described by semanticists and by writers who emphasize the importance of so-called "critical" reading. A careful study of all such discussions that were available led to the conclusion that, as currently conceived, the mature reader possesses genuine and compelling interests in reading and reads widely to achieve many purposes. As a rule, much of his reading tends to focus on specific problems or issues about which he is particularly concerned. He has a thorough mastery of the basic attitudes and skills underlying fluent, thoughtful reading. He is skilful in the interpretation of the author's choice of words and use of language as cues to meaning. He identifies the ideas presented in terms of a broad background of concrete and vicarious experience. He reacts thoughtfully to the ideas presented, thus ac-

quiring not only a broad intellectual grasp of these ideas but also an emotional apprehension of their value and significance. He continually integrates those ideas which he can accept with previous experience, thus expanding his horizon, broadening his interests, refining his attitudes, and improving his thought and behavior patterns.

#### STUDY OF MATURE READERS

With the foregoing characteristics in mind, attention will be focused next on an objective study of the qualities of a selected group of mature readers. The facts presented may be interpreted to advantage in the light of two questions: To what extent are the qualities described above exemplified in the behavior and traits of the readers examined? In what respects should prevailing concepts of mature readers be expanded or modified?

The study to be reported was undertaken in response to a request from the National Council of Teachers of English and is at present nearing completion. The subjects of the main part of the study were twenty men and women who were very successful in their respective fields, were reputedly high-grade citizens, and were known to be widely read, well-informed persons. They varied in educational status from less than high-school graduation to possession of Ph.D. degrees. A detailed interview technique was used to secure needed information

concerning such items as their attitude toward reading, the specific motives for which they read, and the amounts and kinds of materials read. Opportunity was also provided for them to read and react to short articles of current interest. Analysis of the facts secured led to the following tentative conclusions:

1. Without exception, the mature readers interviewed possessed compelling interests and motives which led to wide, penetrating reading for understanding, information, and pleasure. Through stimulating experiences in the home, at school, and in their daily activities of life in general, they had developed an inquiring attitude toward many of the things, events, and activities around them. They had also had many rewarding experiences in their efforts through reading to solve problems, to extend their experiences, and to satisfy interests. As a result reading had become an indispensable aid in the enrichment of life and in the satisfaction of needs.

2. To a large extent, their interests in reading were directed outward from themselves and were focused on events, activities, and problems in the lives of other people, in the community about them, and in society at large. They were not restricted, as are many immature readers, to the immediate problems of survival or ego satisfaction. Instead, they were genuinely interested in learning more about people and events, in pursuing the developments that are going on about them, and in the study of the many perplexing problems of contemporary life. Such interests were definitely reflected in the kinds of reading which they reported and in the responses which they made to questions about that reading.

3. The fact that the readers interviewed had rich and varied interests is closely associated with the fact that they also exhibited a broad background of related experience and

information. Through contacts with others, the use of mass media of communication, and through wide reading and observation, they had acquired an expanded understanding of the world about them. As a result they recognized instantly the broader context or setting of the specific articles that they were asked to read and interpreted the information and ideas involved in light of that setting.

4. With few, if any, exceptions, the mature readers interviewed ranked far above the average in their mastery of the basic skills involved in the perception of words and in the grasp of meaning. As a result the reading act presented few mechanical obstacles, and they were free to concentrate on the interpretation and use of the ideas read. Reading thus became a highly rewarding experience in terms of the pleasures, satisfactions, and values acquired. This fact should be kept clearly in mind in planning maximum reading development on the part of capable learners.

5. The reading performance of the persons interviewed was further distinguished by their tendency to interpret details in relation to the meaning of the passage as a whole. They were quick, therefore, to grasp the author's organization of ideas, and the relations of the ideas one to another and to the major point under discussion. These readers were very sensitive to implied meanings, recognized them instantly, and interpreted them in the light of their setting. They were alert to the generalizations and conclusions presented and interpreted them in the light of the basic issues discussed.

6. Of great significance is the fact that each mature reader interviewed had a central focus or point of view which pervaded or directed much of his thinking. This central focus, or organizing philosophy, was the frame of reference through which he interpreted the ideas acquired and against which he judged, evaluated, and construed them. Over a decade ago Strang pointed out that most readers have a central core or

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radix.<sup>5</sup> The striking fact about the central core of the readers interviewed in this study is that it was focused, as a rule, on human welfare and social progress. This harmonizes with the view of Overstreet and others to the effect that the mature individual has a broad social outlook and is vitally concerned about human welfare and social justice and with the most effective steps in solving current problems and in promoting social progress.

7. Furthermore, the evidence secured indicated that the mature reader does not let his pervading philosophy operate at an unconscious level. He is keenly aware of his own dominant interests, beliefs, hopes, and biases. This awareness enables him to proceed cautiously in his efforts to react thoughtfully to the ideas read. As a result he suspends judgment until he feels that he is in a position to reach a valid conclusion. As an essential part of this process, he reviews critically his own criteria or standards of judgment and revises them if necessary. It follows that, when evaluations are made or decisions reached, they are sound and can be defended objectively.

These and other findings show clearly that mature readers, at their best, exhibit all the characteristics which current discussions attach to them. Of major importance are the facts that they have compelling interests which lead to wide reading; that they are highly competent in all aspects of reading; and that they are able to adjust their procedures and skills in reading to different kinds of material and to various purposes for reading. As a result of training and experience they have acquired a broad

background and a sound personal and social philosophy, in terms of which they interpret most of the materials read. They are so disciplined in the arts of clear, critical, rational thinking that the conclusions reached are usually valid and can be readily defended. We may safely conclude, therefore, that the characteristics stressed in previous sections of this paper may serve as desirable objectives toward which to work in promoting growth in and through reading among capable learners.

As an integral part of the study just described, an effort was made to find out if the qualities attained as a reader are closely related to the number of years of schooling. To this end interviews were held with adults representing three distinct levels of educational advancement, namely, eighth-grade, high-school, and college graduation. Members of each group were invited to participate in proportion to their incidence in the population of a midwestern city. The data showed that the relation between the two variables was disappointingly low. Indeed, there was a surprisingly small amount of variation in the nature and quality of the reading of the three groups. These findings lend support to the view, which has been voiced repeatedly of late, that the upper grades, high school, and college are failing to develop the breadth and depth of interest and the level of reading competence that may reasonably be expected.

<sup>5</sup> Ruth Strang, *Explorations in Reading Patterns*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.



## CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Herein lies the challenge which faces teachers and administrators. How can teachers promote greater development in and through reading on the part of a larger proportion of children and young people? As indicated above, there is wide agreement concerning the qualities that distinguish a mature, competent reader. The results of hundreds of studies show clearly that notable improvement in reading can be secured through the use of appropriate stimulation and

effective group and individual guidance. Teachers and administrators at the secondary-school level should investigate the issues involved in securing superior results at various grade levels and in different curriculum fields and apply them to their particular situation. Through the sharing of experience and the pooling of judgments, notable progress can be made, I am sure, in planning programs that will promote maximal reading development among capable learners.

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## SECONDARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

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AN OVERVIEW of secondary education in India and of some of the major problems confronting it today is presented in this article. Because of the comprehensive nature of the topic, it is treated factually, with a limited amount of evaluative comment. Sources of information include Indian educational literature, visits to about one hundred high schools, and interviews with nearly three hundred headmasters, headmistresses, inspectors, teachers, personnel of the state department of education, and persons associated with teacher-training institutions. Statistical data are taken from the 1951 census, recent reports from the Government of India Ministry of Education, and the *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, published by the ministry in 1953. Data, unless otherwise indicated, are for the school year 1949-1950.

### HISTORICAL ORIGINS

Modern secondary education in India has passed through roughly three stages. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the British overlords introduced the European system of education, with emphasis on

English, literature, and science. This education immediately became a passport to government service. The second stage was formally opened in 1857, with the establishment of the universities. Secondary education then became a preparation for college. The third stage began shortly after the turn of the century, when the various states, feeling that there was too much university domination, began to establish boards of secondary education with power to set the course of study and give the final examinations. This, however, was more a change of control than a change of curriculum. Historians may record the opening of a fourth stage in 1953, with the publication of the *Report of the Secondary Education Commission*, which lays stress on a comprehensive program for *all* youth, not just those planning to attend college. It is too early to determine what influence this report will have and whether it will really usher in a new stage.

Another date that must be included in this brief sketch is 1935, the year that Gandhi went to Segaoon, near Wardha, to inaugurate his "Basic Education" program. Although this

is the only really creative concept of education to come out of India in modern times, it has spread very slowly, and little significant influence has been felt, except at the primary level.

#### PRESENT STATUS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The present secondary education system of India, then, is a contribution of the British, originally designed

includes four or five children of school age. There are some "free seats," but the fact remains that the present overcrowded facilities are inadequate and the tuition costs are too high to permit a substantially larger number of children to attend school, even if the curriculum were better suited to their needs. The constitution provides for free and compulsory education for all youth from six to fourteen years of age, but this is recognized as a goal,

TABLE 1  
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN INDIA, ENROLMENT, EXPENDITURE, AND PER CENT OF POPULATION IN SCHOOL\*

TYPE OF SCHOOL AND AGE OF STUDENTS	SCHOOLS		EXPENDITURES (IN RUPEES)		POPULATION	
	Number	Total Enrolment	Total per Year	Per Pupil per Year	Total (Estimated by Age Group)	Per Cent in School
Primary school (age 6-10)	210,112	18,515,100	77,961,070	4.21	50,000,000	37.0
Middle school (age 11-13)	13,642	3,495,631	13,128,181	3.75	22,000,000	15.9
High school (age 14-16)...	7,342	1,421,035	50,795,120	35.75	23,000,000	6.2
Total.....	231,096	23,431,766	141,884,371	6.06	95,000,000	24.7

\* Data based on 1951 Census.

to prepare students for government service and later modified as a preparatory institution for college. As may be seen from Table 1, this program has benefited only a small per cent of the youth of India. The vast majority of the people cannot afford to pay the tuition fees commonly charged. These fees must not exceed six rupees (\$1.26) per month per child if the school receives government financial aid; but this amount is about *one-fifth* of the average family's income, and the typical family

not a condition capable of immediate realization. Educational leaders with whom I have talked in most states hope to realize this goal at the primary-school level by 1965-70; few will predict when middle schools will be available for all, while the concept of universal secondary education is as yet a distant dream.

*Control and financial support.*—Generally speaking, there are two kinds of secondary schools: government and private. The government schools are sponsored and organized

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by the several state governments. The private schools are sponsored by religious bodies, societies with self-perpetuating boards, or by individual "proprietors." However, all types of schools charge tuition fees, receive government financial aid (if the tuition is kept below six rupees), use the same syllabus, and meet the same standards, which are set by the state departments of education. The government schools are supervised by headmasters and district inspectors without the benefit of local boards of education, and thus control is highly centralized. Many teachers and headmasters from private schools are critical of their local managing committees and proprietors and yearn to be under the inspectorate system, rigid as it is.

The concept of local, democratic control and administration under elected boards of education is practically unknown, and certainly not practiced. Of the expenditures for secondary education in 1949-50, 41 per cent came from state government funds, 42 per cent from tuition fees, 7 per cent from local governing bodies, and 10 per cent from gifts and other sources. There is no local taxation for schools, as in the United States; thus there is little interest in local control and management.

*The program of secondary education.*

—The vertical organization of education varies considerably among the twenty-eight states and even, to some extent, within a given state or city. In general, however, primary educa-

tion consists of four or five years, middle schools include three or four years, and the high school may be two or three years, making a total of ten or eleven years. However, the middle schools are usually considered to be a part of secondary education and are likely to be under the same headmaster as the high school. The Secondary Education Commission has recommended that the intermediate college be placed under secondary-school administration or that the first year of it be transferred to the high school, making a twelve-year program. Except in the primary schools, coeducation is rarely practiced.

Officially, the starting age is six years, but many five-year-olds and some four-year-olds are being taught to read in Grade I of the urban schools that I visited. Many private schools have preprimary schools attached to them, where children are admitted at the age of three or four. Completion of ten or eleven years of schooling would thus come officially at about sixteen or seventeen, but my observation suggests that, actually, age fifteen or sixteen would be a much closer average. (Accurate statistics have been collected only in the past few years and have not been published regularly, but existing data tend to bear out my observations.) Furthermore, an age analysis of students of the numerous colleges that I visited indicated that the average college student in India is about two years

younger than his American counterpart.

The typical secondary school opens at 11:00 A.M. and runs continuously, or with a half-hour "tea" period, until about 4:00 P.M. on five days a week, and on Saturday morning from about 8:30 A.M. until 1:00 P.M. The day is usually divided into six periods. There are generally two terms of five months each, but numerous religious and secular holidays cut the total days per year to two hundred or less.

Although there are some variations in the curriculum from state to state, the general pattern for the middle and high schools includes the following courses:

1. Languages (40 per cent of the total time)
  - a) Regional language (vernacular)—required each year
  - b) Hindi (if this is the vernacular, then another Indian language)—required 3-5 years
  - c) English—Usually required 3-6 years
  - d) Sanskrit (or Persian)—required in perhaps 25 per cent of schools, elective in remainder
2. Social studies (history, geography, and civics)—required 1 or 2 years, elective 2-4 years
3. Science (general, biology, chemistry, physics)—elective, 2 years of each
4. Mathematics (arithmetic, algebra, geometry)—required 1-2 years, elective 2-4 years
5. Two or three courses of two or three years each from the following groups (not all these elective groups are found in all schools):
  - a) Domestic science
  - b) Arts and handicrafts—painting, sculpturing, weaving, ceramics, and the like
  - c) Mechanical engineering and drawing
  - d) Commercial education—typewriting,

shorthand, bookkeeping, and the like

e) Agriculture, horticulture, gardening, and the like (in rural areas only)

f) Music, dancing, and drama

6. Physiology, hygiene, and physical education—required each year

The curriculum is more or less determined by the prescription of "papers" that the student must write in the final examination given at the end of the last year of high school by the universities or the state departments of education. Each paper consists of a three-hour examination, and six to eight are usually required. As indicated above, the student would normally be required to write papers in his regional language, Hindi, English (often two papers to give it double weight), a social science, mathematics, and two or three subjects of his choice.

The high mortality rate revealed by Table 1 as the students progress through the schools is partly accounted for by an internally controlled examination system, which provides rigorous tests at the end of each year and weeds out the weaker students. In spite of this, only about half of the students get a passing mark (usually 30 or 35 per cent) in the matriculation or final secondary examination.

The Indian classroom is quite formal. With few exceptions, found mostly in the model schools attached to teacher-training institutions, the common method of teaching is lecturing, enlivened occasionally with a formal recitation period. The teacher and the students alike are concerned with a catechismic study of the syllabus and

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the questions from the examinations of previous years. Since the examinations are based on factual information, the emphasis is on memorization of facts. The chief source of these facts is a single textbook, arranged sequentially to provide answers to the material outlined in the syllabus. School libraries are pitifully inadequate and usually include many obsolete books, all of which are almost universally kept in locked cases.

Certain model schools present sharp contrasts to the usual scene. Audio-visual aids, reference books and supplementary materials, excursions, community resources, and other types of materials and activities have been introduced. Many schools set aside Saturdays to work on school gardens, community-uplift projects, and other social-service activities. In some schools the boys engage in political rallies at the time of state and national elections. However, even in these schools the classroom remains rather formal, and the pressure of final examinations is ever present.

In the urban areas, buildings and equipment range from ultramodern in a few cases to tents and ground-mats to sit on in the case of one of Delhi's largest high schools. In the villages the school building is likely to be obsolete (a converted house, old servants' quarters, or other shelter), or school may be held under a tree. Equipment is likely to be homemade or makeshift, and the dearth of supplies often necessitates the students' making of paper, paints,

chalk, roll-up blackboards, and other needed items out of indigenous materials.

Many high schools have introduced some co-curricular activities: clubs, scouting, forensics, a school magazine, music and dance, and interscholastic and intramural sports and games. Some have introduced student councils, which represent varying degrees of democratic practices. A few schools have set up "career rooms" and introduced other guidance activities, mostly of a vocational nature.

*The status of teachers.*—The key-stone of an educational system is the teacher. The training prescribed for secondary-school teachers is a B.T. (Bachelor of Teaching) degree, which represents a year of professional training above a Bachelor of Science or a Bachelor of Arts degree. However, there is no certification or enforcement of minimum training of teachers, and, because of the dire shortage, nearly two-thirds of the secondary-school teachers have no professional training and only limited academic training, ranging from Grade VIII to intermediate college. Although more than a hundred thousand newly trained teachers could be placed each year, the teacher-training institutions are graduating only seventy-five hundred annually. However, because of limited facilities, even this number is only one-tenth of those who apply for admission.

The present social and academic status of teachers does not attract promising youth to the profession.

The salaries of secondary-school trained teachers start at about 60 rupees (\$12.00) a month, average about 100 rupees, and may rise in isolated situations to 300 rupees per month. Untrained secondary-school teachers are paid perhaps half of this. Although this is above the average income for India as a whole, it is below that of government clerks and other clerical workers, when they are employed. Because of this low pay, the teacher does not command a high position in the community, and his unsatisfactory status is often reflected in his work. There is little incentive for the untrained teacher to become trained or for the trained teacher to continue his professional growth through in-service education.

#### MAJOR PROBLEMS OF SECOND-ARY EDUCATION

As might be expected, this somewhat dismal situation has created many problems which the new, independent government of India is now attacking with the help of the state governments, various commissions, and certain teachers' colleges. The problems listed below are drawn from personal observation, but they have been recognized by the Secondary Education Commission as the major educational problems facing India today.

*The inadequate curriculum.*—Perhaps the most serious and the most difficult problem is the wholly inadequate curriculum. In the first place,

it was "imported" from an entirely different culture; it was not, even in the beginning, designed for Indian needs. Second, it was intended for only a few potential government clerks, not for the masses as the curriculum for today must be. Third, it was intended for a subjugated people, not the free people of a democracy. Its only relation to the real needs of Indian youth today is by chance, not design.

Curriculum tinkering will not solve this problem; there must be a thoroughgoing analysis of needs, purposes, and goals of education for Indian youth and the development of a dynamic, realistic, and functional program from the ground up. This will not be easy. There are powerful forces that cling to tradition, oppose mass education, wish to conserve financial resources, fear the breakdown of the caste system, or see education as a preventive of communism. To build a new educational program for 360 million people is a tremendous undertaking. India has some outstanding educational leadership with the technical ability to do the job, but much more will need to be developed.

At present, the problems are being attacked only on a superficial basis and, at this rate, it will take many years to effect fundamental changes. Newspapers and magazines are full of condemnation of the present system, and nearly every public speaker, political and otherwise, decries the sad plight of education. India is ready

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for educational reform; a truly dynamic stimulus of some sort could set off a tremendous movement.

*Need for vocational education.*—

Part of the curriculum problem centers in the need for vocational education. Although at one time the curriculum provided training for *one* vocation—government work—it has not done even that in these later years. Eighty-five per cent of the Indian people are agriculturists and for some time will remain so. There is some small movement toward the cities, but this cannot continue for long unless there is rapid industrial development. Less than one-seventh of the high-school students go to college (less than one per cent of the total school enrolment, less than one-fourth of one per cent of the population age group), and yet there are not enough jobs for the college graduates. In this vacuum, little has been done to meet one of the basic needs of mankind the world over, the opportunity to engage in productive labor.

Mahatma Gandhi proposed a scheme that has come to be known as "Basic Education." In 1935, he moved to the little village of Segaon in central India, "the poorest village in the poorest part of India." He taught the people to be self-sufficient within the community. Every child learned to spin and weave and raise his food and build his own shelter. People learned co-operatively to build roads and drain swamps for themselves. Finally, Gandhi encouraged

the development of cottage industries to provide exchange credit for a few luxuries above the bare necessities of life.

But Gandhi's concept is withering on the vine from want of nurture and improvement. Several states have by decree established new "basic" primary schools or converted other schools to basic primary schools, with little concern for the lack of preparation of the teachers, acceptance by the community, or adaptation of the plan to meet specific needs. A few "basic" middle and high schools and several "basic" colleges have sprung up, but they have failed to incorporate Gandhi's real contribution to the concept of education. Gandhi set the pattern for building a functional program: analyze the basic needs of youth, the community, and the nation, and develop a program to meet these needs.

A few technical schools have been opened, and some high schools have introduced vocational courses. A start has been made on the problem, but it is a small start. The meeting of the vocational needs of youth must constitute an integral part of the new education if it is to serve India and her youth.

*The language problem.*—In India there are fourteen major languages and some six hundred dialects. Until 1947, the medium of high-school instruction was usually English, and English was also taught as a required foreign language. The constitution

designated Hindi as the national language and, by inference, made it a compulsory subject. Sanskrit is considered to be the mark of an educated man, and many colleges require it. The result has been that 40 per cent of the curriculum time has been devoted to the teaching of languages at the expense of other subjects, and only those students with linguistic ability could hope to succeed in school.

To a foreigner the solution to this problem might appear to be easy—make Hindi the medium of instruction and the only compulsory language in the curriculum. But the problem is complicated by many factors. First of all, Hindi is not a full modern language and must be supplemented in certain areas, such as science and industry. Even in literature it is not particularly rich. It has had practically no development since the advent of the British in India. Although it is the most widely used of the fourteen languages, it is still the mother-tongue of less than 30 per cent of the people. There is strong opposition in South India to Hindi as the national language.

A second complication lies in the bitter feelings surrounding English. For 150 years it has been the official language, the *one* universal language in India. However, it suggests unpleasant memories which many want to forget. Since 1947 the quality of the teaching of English has deteriorated rapidly; this is used as an argument in favor of abandoning it.

Third, there is now a strong move-

ment toward the return of regional languages. Many persons are supporting a movement to reorganize the states on a linguistic basis, and several colleges have shifted the medium of instruction from English to the regional language. Most of the best literature of India is found in the regional languages; some persons feel that much of its beauty would be lost if it were to be translated and regional languages were abandoned.

Fourth, Sanskrit is the base for eleven of the fourteen languages and consequently holds an important place among scholars. Persian forms the base for the other languages.

It is difficult for the impartial observer to see how India can become unified and strong without a common language. Certainly Hindi, because it is in the family of Indian languages, is easier to teach than English, and it can be enriched as necessary. The acceptance of Hindi as the national language does not prevent the preservation of great literature in the regional languages. The full acceptance of Hindi would reduce the languages to be taught to one, even immediately; for although a regional language might be spoken in the home for another generation or two, there would be no need to teach it in the school. English, Sanskrit, and other languages could be offered on an elective basis. However, it must not be assumed that this solution will be readily acceptable to the Indian people.

*The examination system.*—The present program of education is predi-

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cated on memorizing sufficient factual data to pass the final public examination. Such a system not only restricts education to the academic elite but keeps it from being functional even for those who survive. The examination determines the curriculum and the methods of teaching. Many teachers would like to use newer and more effective methods, but they feel bound by the examination to place emphasis on memorization. The final examination does not measure the development of personality or democratic principles and practices; hence, as goals, these are only verbalizations. Finally, the examination is bitterly degrading of personality, for relatively few pass, and more than half of those persons who pass do so with the lowest score. Dishonesty in the control of questions, cheating in the examination, and verbal and physical attacks upon the examiners are natural, common expressions of dissatisfaction with the system.

The elimination of the final examination would require other controls for the maintenance of minimum standards, but the basis of some of these controls already exists. The financial aid of the several state governments and the existing professional organizations suggest two possibilities, and the college-admission standards suggest a third for at least a part of the curriculum. Some schools have introduced an internal pupil-evaluation program along modern lines, which does not interfere with the final ex-

amination. Some have also introduced "school-leaving certificates" for those who do not wish to take the matriculation or final examination. If such practices were to become common, the final examination might disappear.

*Finance.*—The problem of financing education in India seems almost insurmountable until some of the natural resources are developed. Education must compete with other needs in the new government—roads, hospitals, village development, social welfare, military services, and many other demands. Present sources of revenue have been tapped almost to the limit.

Some schools are now running double-shift programs; almost all classrooms are overcrowded, maximums having been raised to sixty pupils in at least one state. Many buildings are unfit for use, and many classes have no classrooms. Teachers' salaries should be doubled immediately; tuitions should be abolished. To serve the present number of students properly, educational expenditures should be doubled or tripled; to remove tuitions would double the cost again.

How, then, can the expansion called for by universal education be met? Where will the money come from to train the necessary teachers, build minimum shelters, and provide operational costs for additional students? The only realistic answer seems to lie in the development of India's natural resources and in industrialization, which will raise the general standard of living and provide a better



base for taxation. There is some movement in this direction, but thus far it is limited.

*Lack of community interest and control.*—The centralization of education has led to bureaucratic control and administration. No school has a controlling board of education elected by the community. Even the "managing committee" of the private schools are not representative of the communities which they serve. The schools are operated from remote centers; the teachers and headmasters are responsible to inspectors, who, in turn, are responsible to the state director of education.

It is no wonder that there is little community interest in the schools. Recently parents' and teachers' organizations have been introduced into a few schools, but these serve more as vehicles of information than as sounding boards for educational policies. It is doubtful whether education can be developed around community and individual needs until the responsibility for control and administration is brought closer home.

*Low status of teachers.*—The unfavorable status of teachers has already been pointed out. To teachers,

this is the "No. 1" problem; and, certainly, it should not be minimized. However, the solution of some of the foregoing problems is basic to any material improvement here. Many areas have no professional organizations, and only a few teachers belong to those that do exist. Many men use teaching as a steppingstone to better-paying jobs. Professional meetings are few; professional spirit is low; and professional self-improvement is limited. Some claim that professional ethics are lacking. These factors must be corrected by the teachers themselves if their status is to be brought to a top level, and they might well start on these conditions now. It can only be hoped that strength in professionalism will result in some improvement in economic and social status.

These and other problems of lesser importance are widely recognized, and they need to be solved. But education for free, democratic India must find deeper roots than these problems represent. It must spring from the basic needs of an agricultural people, just awakening to a new world, who, after they yawn and stretch a little, may then be ready for action.

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## THE CASE FOR YEARBOOK CREDIT

VERA FLORY

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SHOULD yearbook production be accredited as a course in the high-school curriculum? This is a question which plagues yearbook advisers and curriculum directors in many areas. A uniform policy has not been established. In some schools, the yearbook is considered an extra-curriculum activity. In others, it has the same standing as any academic subject.

As a yearbook adviser, I have been vitally interested in the question. In the school district in which I served in this capacity, academic credit was allowed for the work, but a change in policy was being contemplated by curriculum planners despite the protests of yearbook advisers and English-department heads. In the city in which I was an exchange teacher, on the other hand, no credit was given, but advisers and, in some cases, administrators were agitating for a reversal of policy. Consequently it has seemed to me that the problem needs airing if the seeming paradox in trends is to be effectively resolved.

In my conversations with persons who believe the yearbook should be treated as an extra-curriculum activity, I have been presented in each case with the argument that yearbook pro-

duction is purely vocational in its scope and has no content that could be considered in any way academic. Those who hold that yearbook production merits the status of a regular elective course contend, on the other hand, that it is one of the most profitable and highly integrated courses in the English curriculum and that it satisfies the requirements of the most modern and generally accepted philosophy of education in providing for a synthesis of ideas, principles, and theories, and for their application to a problem of immediate significance. Removing it from the curriculum, they continue, deprives the student of a rich and profitable learning experience.

### DISADVANTAGES OF THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM YEARBOOK

When the activity is treated as an extra-curriculum project, advisers have pointed out that, even though the students who sign up for it are sincere and honest in their intentions, there are heavy casualties. The interest is there, but the effort is too great. The long hours after school; the pressure of the regular course work as the year advances; the conflict with more

social and less meticulous and intellectually exacting extra-curriculum activities, such as clubs and social service organizations; and the competition of dramatics and newspaper work, both carrying academic credit and prestige, cause many of the staff members to drop out at critical moments, often at deadline time. The result is that the heaviest duties in yearbook production fall upon the adviser's shoulders, making him the full producer of the book.

In these circumstances it grows increasingly difficult for administrators to secure volunteers from their teaching staffs for work so onerous. Usually it becomes necessary to appoint the yearbook adviser. The teacher selected goes through the year doing the work with good enough grace, but often he is resentful at the system and at the lack of comprehension of the problem by those who do not have to take their turn at the task. With the occasional help of a few students, he spends an inordinate amount of time producing a book that should be the students' responsibility, and he counts the years with dread when it will be his chore again.

Each year a different teacher is thus coerced into taking the task until the cycle begins again. The complexities of the responsibility require more than a year's time for mastery. Consequently at no time does the teacher in charge feel adequate to the work, nor do the few students who assist him as their schedules permit have an experience of particular or unique value. At

best, it is a haphazard undertaking for all concerned and might more satisfactorily be turned over to the mass-production agencies that have sprung up in different parts of the country for the purpose of building standardized books, with standardized themes, standardized art, and standardized covers, from basic raw materials—photographs and statistics—furnished by the schools.

#### ADVANTAGES DERIVED FROM CREDIT COURSE

Drawing from my own experience I say, "What an opportunity is lost in such instances!" The yearbook is a permanent record of the student's interests and activities, a reminder of his friends and acquaintances, and a symbol of a goal achieved. More intangibly, it provides him with a moral and intellectual ideal in the theme, in the achievements of those who serve the school, and in the artistic and literary accomplishments of the students who designed the book. To work on such a project can be a challenge. How we search for projects on which students can test their skills! Working on the yearbook can be an opportunity for the gifted student to extend himself. It can be an opportunity to reward the slower student for the hard work of qualifying himself for a place on the staff.

*Selection of staff.*—In our school we had a regular academic course in yearbook production. We limited our "class" to a staff of twenty members, ten Seniors and ten Juniors. We were

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permitted to give three credits for four semesters' work. Juniors applied for membership on blanks provided for the purpose and presented themselves for interviews by the staff. Faculty references on character, personality, traits, and capacity were solicited, and the staff and adviser weighed the students' qualifications and made the selections.

*Apprenticeship.*—The newly elected Juniors served the first semester without credit, signing into the yearbook room as a study hall. They were considered apprentices and were expected to work as hard as those who were receiving credit. If they did not take the work seriously, they were dropped from the staff and sent to the regular study hall for the remainder of the term. But dropping students from the staff was rarely necessary.

*Academic content and other learnings.*—As for academic content of the course, the students boasted (and *boasted* is used advisedly because they were proud of the fact) that the yearbook course was one of the "stiffest" in the English department. We used a handbook which covered every phase of yearbook production, and the contents of that book had to be understood and mastered. It was specific. It was technical. It had the approval of the principal and the department head, both of whom visited the class frequently and praised the intellectual approach of the students to their work and the buzz of interested activity. At the end of the year the students made suggestions for the improvement of

the handbook, based on their own experience with it.

From this handbook they learned the principles of literary and artistic composition, and in the production of the yearbook they *applied* the principles. They were eager to try their hands at bringing unity into a book so full of variety, using theme, drawings, color schemes, organization, writing style, and page patterns to accomplish their purpose. They culled the literature for ideas and drew on their own imaginations to make their yearbook as original as possible without being bizarre.

They learned what constitutes good and bad photography from the artistic, and from the engraver's, point of view. Using the general principles of pictorial composition, they sought to plan pictures of student and classroom activities that would be dynamic and interesting, pictures that told a story instead of presenting staring faces all in a row ad infinitum through the book. They put into writing what they wanted their pictures to say and furnished sketches to the photographers so that they would have "patterns" to go by. They learned what kinds of pictures make good engravings and judged the proofs when they were submitted, rejecting the unacceptable in writing, so that the photographer would understand the reasons for rejection.

Each student, without regard to his position on the staff, knew the printer's requirements for the written page, learned proofreaders' marks, and

worked creatively on layout suggestions so that he could help others when he had no work of his own demanding his attention. He also learned from his handbook the administration's requirements for orderly conduct in the halls and on the grounds when pictures were being taken and method of handling students who refused to co-operate.

Tests were given on knowledge of the handbook at proper intervals, and papers were required on different aspects of the work. Spelling, vocabulary, and content were graded as they are in any other English course, along with punctuality in meeting assignments and ability to work with others. This class never had to be goaded into performance. The students were motivated by the desire to excel in all phases of their work; for all the while they were producing a book—their book!

Also considered as academic experience was the opportunity that the course provided for constructive and co-operative planning, budgeting of time and money, and simulation of life-experience.

#### ACTIVITIES IN PREPARATION OF YEARBOOK

We began the following year's annual in the spring after the current yearbook was on the presses. The graduating Seniors acted as advisers, the teacher remaining in the background as much as possible. The Juniors who had been working as apprentices now got into independent

activity. They were assigned layout jobs (using cast-off prints), picture-planning (to produce activity shots instead of startled "Look, Ma!" effects), copywriting, and proofreading. Competitions were set in motion, by various methods, for new staff members, artists, and themes. Application blanks for staff membership were revised and made ready, then distributed and collected. The business of selection was gone into carefully in order to give students of different types an opportunity to participate in this important work.

At the same time the staff began the serious consideration of what they could do the next year to produce a yearbook better in design, workmanship, fulfilment of student needs, and value received for money spent. Bids were solicited, the members of the printing trade presenting their offerings to the class and answering their questions. The tradesmen were accustomed to the serious purposes of the students and treated them as their young adult employers, so that, when contracts were signed, the students felt the responsibility of meeting their obligations.

The editorial positions and that of business manager were reserved for Seniors, who applied in writing for the positions which they wanted the next year, giving their reasons for wanting the positions and their qualifications. The adviser and the staff members whose places were being vacated by graduation held conferences with the candidates. In cases where students

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were considered not to be qualified for the positions which they desired, their particular abilities for other posts were pointed out to them. Then the names were posted, the competing candidates were excused from the room, and the entire staff began discussion of the qualifications of the candidates. On the whole, competence for the position was the young people's usual criterion, though occasionally the adviser found it necessary to intervene with a judicious word when personal preference seemed to outweigh judgment.

During the summer the new officers held occasional meetings to begin the formulation of the next year's plans. Enthusiasm never lagged. Interest and effort ran along together "in tandem style."

There was no lack of opportunity for mastering skills in listening and observing, reading, thinking, discussing, and writing. The students attended yearbook conferences, visited the engravers and printers and photographic studios. They took notes and returned to class to discuss what they had heard and seen. They read library assignments on book-building and related subjects, and they did research on the theme selected for the yearbook for that year (for example, on the history of their city, on chivalry, on tradition, or on abstract art) and reported to the class, explaining how in their own work they would use the principles learned or the information

gathered. They wrote and rewrote sentences and paragraphs, striving for effects, to give the students in their yearbook something they would *want* to read, while at the same time giving them an artistic whole embodying the basic principles of balance and contrast, of objectivity and suggestion. And all the while they were thinking—selecting what was useful and interpreting it in their own language and creative effort.

When they held the finished product in their hands, a surge of pride and embarrassment went through the group: pride in having done the best they could; embarrassment because their best did not satisfy them.

#### CONCLUDING COMMENT

Only in the most limited sense, it seems to me, could such a course be called vocational. The production of books is, of course, a vocational pursuit. But in this case, book production is not an end in itself, as it is for a professional publisher. It is rather a means to a cultural attainment through the mastering of subject matter, abstract ideas, forms, and expression. Much of what the students learn and the powers they gain can be applied in any subsequent pursuit, whether theoretical or practical. This is the function of academic courses. Should not yearbook production, then, be correctly called academic? I think it should.

# THE EDUCATION OF GIFTED CHILDREN

## SUGGESTIONS FOR A PHILOSOPHY AND A CURRICULUM

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CURRICULUM MAKERS have rationalized that, at the secondary-school level, the "whole child" is being educated. The American public secondary school has indeed tried to develop the physical man. Witness the typical high school's compulsory program of physical education and health; the myriad of seasonal sports; the elective classes in nutrition, consumer education, cooking, and sewing. Nor has the high school been remiss in its "leisure-time" training, for it is not rare to have one school sponsor some fifteen clubs. The curriculum offers extensive vocational preparation. At first appearance, the new secondary curriculum is more than adequately meeting the needs, not only of the future American worker, but also of the American employer, the factory superintendent, and the office manager. Even the preparation for community life—the safety program, citizenship classes, and driver education—provides credits toward high-school diplomas.

Thus we argue that we are reaching the whole child through expanding courses of study, that the solution of

the integration of school and life has been somewhat accomplished, and that all the children of all the people are receiving equal opportunity. What a comforting rationalization it is!

### LIMITATIONS OF PRESENT HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAMS

But advantages are usually accompanied by limitations. The expanded curriculum brought with its "blessings" an amputation of "useless" content—classics and literary history among them—and a dilution to insipidity of any materials too difficult for the secondary school's Everyman. The elective system has curtailed concentration and depth and has made education virtually "a thing of shreds and patches." Moreover, the false equality of opportunity that attempts to deny the undeniable diversity of intelligence has given American high-school education the uninspiring character of "allness," a mediocrity that equates individuality with undesirable deviation.

American high-school education has developed a pseudo-breadth in its multiform curriculum, but it has sac-

rified depth. It has given physical, mental, social, and vocational "offerings," but it has failed to create the type of personal integration that makes man sense himself as a harmonious unity of complementary strengths and weaknesses. American education has taught the Bill of Rights, but it has failed to make the student feel an intimate oneness with all men and to give him an understanding of his personal function as a necessary link in the chain of human effort. It has acquainted him with the geography, history, and economics of other nations, but it has failed to point up the interdependence of these studies in the lives of human beings and the significance of each person, each nation, and each era in the cultural evolution of humanity. American high-school education at best has given the student the facts, but it has left no abiding residual understandings that become a part of the student's being. The impressive diversity of curriculum lacks meaningful unity that connects and gives significance to the particular studies. Moreover, American education has too often attempted to make all learning "fun" and has consequently deprived the student of the incomparable inner satisfaction of mastering the difficult.

Nor are the superficiality and lack of relatedness of the curriculum content American education's only limitation. Another limitation is the fallacy of the education of *all* the children. It has long seemed to me that American secondary schools have been making

poor investments. Voluminous educational publications and the pattern of high-school education itself—diversity of electives, emphasis on "activity," lowering of standards—bear witness to the fact that content, method, and majority of teacher time are regulated for the average or subaverage student. The gifted child (with an intelligence quotient of 130-65) is left to teach himself, for he can meet lowered standards admirably. What he might be if he had equal opportunity is a matter of speculation.

The gifted American high-school student is the student most neglected in our present educational system. The prevalent philosophy of democratic heterogeneity has denied him opportunity commensurate with his ability; his intellectual capacity makes him especially fitted to benefit from the depth, unity, and interdependence that the American curriculum lacks.

Let us look, first, at the typical gifted student from our present system; next, at the developments that necessitate a change in educational philosophy and policy; and, finally, at recommended changes in curriculum, methods, and teacher preparation.

#### THE TYPICAL GIFTED STUDENT

Our intellectually talented youth is a grade-conscious student whose goals are to accumulate the necessary credits and engage in the approved extra-class activities that colleges seem to desire as collateral. To him, knowledge for knowledge's sake is an unrealistic phenomenon; the challenge of inde-

pendent thought is rather a punishment. Heterogeneous grouping has inflated his ego, lowered his standards of excellence, and often reduced him to a state of inert boredom. He dislikes school as much as does the subaverage student, but for different reasons. He is a circumscribed conversationalist, an uncritical thinker; he is superficial, immature, and somewhat resignedly futile. Often he is the brashest of chauvinists, a retailer of generalizations and half-truths, a compartmentalized thinker who can neither analyze nor synthesize ideas. Although he belongs to an honor society and graduates at the head of his class, he is uneducated in the general and liberal senses.

Defenders of our present secondary-school policy and philosophy will cite the successes of our students in colleges, special schools, and service careers. How then could our "credit-accumulation" education be inadequate? Why do we need reorganization?

#### DEVELOPMENTS NECESSITATING CHANGE IN EDUCATIONAL POLICY

A changing national and international scene is slowly making our present education of the intellectually gifted as practically unfeasible for society in general as it was always inadequate for the individual himself. Here are some of the reasons:

First, it is increasingly imperative for Americans to find satisfaction and meaning in their personal lives; since

vocational goals, for which they so assiduously prepared, must often remain unsatisfied or be seriously compromised. Increasing populations and widespread higher education have limited financial opportunities and vocational choices. In theory, a youth still can be anything he wants to be; but in real life, he may find his field crowded, the income small, and the chance for advancement slight.

Our factual education has fitted him for making a living, but not for living. If he is vocationally disappointed, he is unable to enjoy, as a compensation, the intangible satisfactions of books, art, music, or the natural beauties and the wonder of life itself. In his eyes, money equals life, success, happiness. He has never learned to integrate every experience into a rich inner life.

Second, it daily becomes more essential for the American high-school student really to understand the American scene as a whole: to realize the implications to himself and to our nation of the closing of the frontiers; of the problems of conservation; of the reciprocal nature of liberty; of the lack of freedom for minorities within our own borders; of the importance and dignity of each man's work. A knowledge and an understanding of the rise and fall of other great nations since the inception of historical record would reveal to the student the frightening similarities among the histories of nations that only comparison can show and would impress upon him America's importance as one link in the sequence of history: our depend-

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Lastly, it is now mandatory that the student truly understand the real meaning of a world united by transportation. Although his education has not made him particularly receptive to the idea of interdependence, cultural chauvinism—the concept of the all-good, all-righteous, and permanently superior nation—is now ridiculous. Although money has been to him the hallmark of greatness, he finds that international co-operation cannot be bought. He must develop a cultural depth and maturity which will endure when financial superiority fades. He must understand human relations well enough to realize that leadership involves a fearful responsibility to those led.

Instead of giving him these things, his education has rewarded superficiality, not depth; has reinforced leadership with privilege and spoils; has praised a mastery of fact and a minimum of reasonable thinking. For the development of a satisfactory inner life as a person, for a meaningful citizenship in a changing national life, for an intelligent mature attitude toward America's international position, the American secondary education of the gifted student is inadequate.

#### CHANGES NEEDED TO GIVE EFFECTIVE EDUCATION

In order to develop depth, breadth, and sense of unity in the gifted student, some practical, altogether feasi-

ble changes should be made in curriculum content, methodology, and teacher preparation.

*In curriculum content.*—Intensity, rather than diversity, should be the keynote for the gifted student. In lieu of year-long courses consisting of a sequence of units without much relatedness, curriculums should introduce these three-year *prescribed* courses: (1) significant trends in the world's history, with emphasis on the interdependence of geography, economics, and social life of peoples; (2) insistent repeated classic themes in the prose and poetry of the world; and (3) self-adjustment and social adjustment, stressing the interdependence of mankind which is rooted within man's own nature, and the universal character of man's nature in which the variations are more accidental than fundamental.

These three courses should be so designed that there would be continuity and development and consequent breadth and depth; then truly there would be a core of "common learnings" from which the other elective subjects would gain significance and perspective. Science would assume a manifold meaning: man's search to understand his universe; his dependence on the inquiry of men of all eras and nations; his superiority to his discoveries; the import of scientific discovery and invention to the history of man, his religious thought, and his literature. No longer only a problem of translation and syntax, foreign language would be a channel through



which the men of other nations spoke of universal problems of mankind.

What specifically might each of the prescribed courses include?

A course entitled "Significant Trends in the World's History" should emphasize the idea of history as a record of man's search for happiness; the evolutionary character of history; the interdependence of eras; events that in the past heralded change, dissolution, breakdown, and the imminence of war; the interrelations of geography, history, economics, and basic human drives. Such an approach to history would reveal the why as well as the what. Such interpretation of the historical data would point up that America is but a part of a continuous evolution. The student would be far better able to evaluate the significance of his present courses if he knew the past as trends rather than as a sequence of memorized names, dates, places; he could better understand parallel developments in other nations.

A course entitled "Insistent Classic Themes in the Prose and Poetry of the World" should differentiate the *accidents* of literature—the era-bound qualities—from the *essence* of literature; should indicate the repetition of the basic ideas that mankind has found valuable; and should point out the mental, emotional, and social problems about which man has repeatedly written in prose and poetry. As the adolescent strives to clarify his relation to his expanding world, such a study would certainly engender in him a sense of belongingness to the human family and an appreciation for the

power of language to surmount the barriers of time, space, and nationality and to speak intimately to his heart and mind.

A course entitled "Self-adjustment and Social Adjustment" should emphasize the attributes common to human nature; the relation of choices of goals to happiness; the many-sided rewards of vocations well carried out; the universality (hence necessity) of family life; the meaning of equality; the importance of self-appraisal and self-education; preparation for, and the values of, living alone and living together; vehicles for the expression of man's emotions (art and music); the basic principles of artistic work (symmetry, design, harmony). Every gifted student should be accorded at least the pleasure of recognizing the masterpieces of art. He should, too, enjoy working in his own chosen medium. Knowledge of a masterpiece often develops into genuine appreciation when an individual attempts the work himself.

*In methodology.*—The worth of curriculum content is often dissipated by the method of teaching employed. (Just witness the "study" of a Miltonic sonnet in a secondary classroom!) Intellectual challenge should be the keynote for the gifted student. Abstracting principles and significant interrelations; interpretation of inference; synthesizing facts for conclusions; tracing themes, selecting and rejecting the important and the unimportant; unemotionalized criticism based on total consideration of the many factors involved—these are the

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techniques of learning and teaching that should replace emphasis on accumulation of facts, memorization, unproductive and often confusing "discussion for discussion's sake," and optional and frequently vaguely related activities—all of which are prevalent methods in either our traditional or modern schools.

For the gifted student, neither the core curriculum nor the unit method, in and of itself, is a panacea. To utilize either of these procedures advantageously, homogeneous grouping, pre-planned curriculum content as outlined in the earlier sections of this paper, and implementation of the materials by the methods just described must be assumed. Otherwise, method, matter, and related work are likely to be geared to the median group—a procedure which leaves the subaverage student puzzled, the gifted student bored. Unchallenged, the bored soon gravitate to mediocre fact-finding, voluminous uncritical reading, mastery of unimportant tasks; they confuse quantity for quality, discuss verbalisms rather than ideas, and claim superiority by comparison with the subaverage. Lost is the goal of general or liberal education!

*In teacher preparation.*—The desirable teacher for the program outlined for the gifted secondary-school student should have the type of liberal arts education that insures a factual knowledge and a deep and mature understanding of our cultural heritage. Wide reading; mastery of a second language; acquaintance through hand, heart, and mind with the arts; travel

in the form of excursions into the world of men and into that of nature—all these are the necessary preparations for the genuine teacher. Although he needs some training in methods, evaluations, and procedures, such implementation should always be distinctly subservient to his knowledge of subject matter. A year's study of techniques would probably suffice; primarily he needs to develop creativity in adapting method to subject matter.

But far more important than his mastery of method is the teacher's conviction about challenging the talented to the utmost; his desire to awaken in them the spirit of intellectual curiosity; his sense of America's need for secure, well-informed, constructively critical, liberally educated students. The desire for a rich inner life can only be aroused by one who himself has lived meaningfully.

#### CONCLUDING COMMENT

The changes in curriculum, method, and teacher preparation outlined are all absolutely feasible. There is, in fact, some teacher preparation of this type now in progress. But American educational policy makers must see the need for conservation of our intellectual resources. Wise men from the time of Plato on saw the menace of mediocrity in the democratic system. America is not miraculously exempt from this destructive possibility. If we are to have the intellectual elite we so obviously need, secondary education must begin helping gifted students develop to their highest capacities.

## FREE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS ARE EXPENSIVE

L. B. EZELL AND PAUL COLEMAN, JR.

University of Texas



TODAY, more than ever before, the completion of secondary education is looked upon as a necessity for the boy or girl who hopes to gain economic independence and become a contributing member of society. Young people who drop out of high school short of graduation encounter a barrier to employment and promotion. It is clear that, in our "free public schools," no economic factor should cause children to leave school so long as they can profit by attendance. However, it has long been known, through the work of Counts<sup>1</sup> and many subsequent investigations, that the public high school is somewhat selective on an economic basis. Pupils from the higher economic levels are more likely to remain in school than are those from lower levels. Those persons in greatest need of secondary education seem to be the ones most liable to premature elimination. Few high schools have met the problem of hidden costs—those expenses which embarrass the penniless student, impoverish his school experience, and often lead to his untimely withdrawal.

<sup>1</sup>George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1922.

### A SAMPLE INVESTIGATION

As a specific case, the extra costs to students attending five, small, four-year high schools in central Texas were studied. The schools and their enrolments were as follows: Bastrop, 110; Elgin, 172; Round Rock, 178; Burnet, 180; and Smithville, 185.

The method of investigation used was that devised by Hand,<sup>2</sup> with very few modifications. All teachers and administrators in the five schools were interviewed, and the class-record files in each school were studied for detailed information. During the interviews, three questionnaires were distributed: a subject inventory, an extra-curriculum activity inventory, and a general cost-of-participation inventory. All questionnaires were checked, and completed when necessary, by the principal or superintendent of each school.

### DETAILED COSTS

*Class dues.*—In two schools no class dues were levied. Costs of maintaining good standing in the student bodies in

<sup>2</sup>Harold C. Hand, *How To Conduct the Hidden Tuition Costs Study*. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 4. Circular Series, No. 51. Springfield, Illinois: Vernon L. Nickell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1949.

other schools ranged from \$0.45 for Elgin Freshmen to \$1.50 for Bastrop Freshmen. A few Juniors at Elgin paid \$4.50, but for most of them this assessment was met by services to the class rather than in cash.

*Costs of taking courses.*—In four of the five schools the subject causing the greatest expense to the pupil or his family was band. In three schools the costs involved in taking band were over \$20.00. In vocational-agriculture courses an extreme cost range, from \$1.40 to \$22.00, was noted. Students spent from \$5.00 to \$13.40 on courses in typewriting. Costs for homemaking courses were close to \$5.00 in each school. In the old-line academic fields the extra costs were small.

*The extra-class organizations.*—The most expensive extra-class organization was the Future Farmers of America, the costs for participation ranging from \$7.25 at Burnet to \$18.60 at Smithville. For membership in the Future Homemakers of America, girls spent from \$1.75 at Round Rock to \$5.30 at Bastrop. Participation in boys' basketball cost nothing in two schools but cost up to \$7.50 at Burnet. Girls' basketball, reported from four schools, involved no individual cost at Round Rock but required \$25.00 at Burnet. Costs for baseball, reported from four schools, ranged from \$5.00 to \$11.00. The greatest single expenditure reported for an extra-curriculum activity was \$39.75 for the leaders of the pep squad at Smithville.

*Home athletic contests.*—For attending all home athletic contests, costs to

students ranged from \$2.40 at Elgin to \$7.00 at Round Rock. Most of this expense was for admission to football and basketball games.

*Forensics, music, dramatics, pay assemblies.*—Costs for pay assemblies, band concerts, musicals, operettas, and plays were moderate, ranging from \$0.30 to \$3.50. Three schools reported only one item each under this heading.

*Class or school social functions.*—Eligibility to attend all class and school functions to which the pupil was otherwise entitled cost nothing at Round Rock and Bastrop. The pupils at Smithville and Burnet paid \$0.50 for such privileges; at Elgin they paid \$2.00. It should be remembered that costs for clothing or costumes were not included.

*School publications.*—Four schools supported yearbooks, and one of these also had a school paper. The total costs for student publications ranged from \$3.00 to \$4.00.

*School insignia.*—The only insignia item reported, Senior rings, was common to all schools. The cost ranged from \$13.00 at Smithville to \$20.70 at Elgin.

*Graduation costs.*—The reported costs of graduation included money paid for announcements, invitations, cards, caps and gowns, class gifts, and photographs. The average total costs for these items ranged from \$4.25 at Round Rock to \$12.00 at Elgin.

*Miscellaneous cost.*—The average costs paid by pupils for necessary miscellaneous items ranged from \$5.30 at

Bastrop to \$10.90 at Smithville. Representative items in this category were fountain pens, pencils, notebooks and notebook paper, insurance, and contributions.

for a Bastrop Freshman. Freshmen spent from \$20.30 to \$90.95; Sophomores, from \$22.55 to \$76.50; Juniors, from \$23.35 to \$79.85; and Seniors, from \$48.85 to \$96.30.

#### THE GENERAL PICTURE

By way of summary, the high, average, and low costs paid by students are

#### WHAT CAN BE DONE?

When a Freshman in a small high school must raise more than \$20.00,

TABLE 1  
HIGH, AVERAGE, AND LOW COSTS OF FRESHMAN, SOPHOMORE, JUNIOR,  
AND SENIOR STUDENTS IN FIVE TEXAS HIGH SCHOOLS

CLASS	SCHOOL				
	Elgin	Round Rock	Bastrop	Smithville	Burnet
Freshman:					
High.....	\$61.25	\$53.90	\$42.80	\$90.95	\$60.90
Average.....	42.10	33.75	37.85	43.65	34.90
Low.....	24.30	28.30	20.30	24.30	26.80
Sophomore:					
High.....	76.50	52.40	46.30	73.40	49.55
Average.....	45.15	33.45	37.25	55.25	35.25
Low.....	22.55	27.45	26.05	29.25	23.70
Junior:					
High.....	61.95	59.85	51.95	79.85	62.60
Average.....	48.00	43.75	46.40	53.35	38.90
Low.....	31.55	29.60	38.30	32.95	23.35
Senior:					
High.....	96.30	59.50	71.65	94.25	78.30
Average.....	77.80	56.10	64.20	67.30	64.70
Low.....	60.00	48.85	58.50	49.80	53.00

set forth by school and class in Table 1. Average costs varied little for the first three classes but jumped sharply for Seniors. The highest average cost was \$77.80 for Elgin Seniors. The lowest average was \$33.45 for Round Rock Sophomores. The high costs ranged from \$96.30 for an Elgin Senior to \$42.80 for a Bastrop Freshman. The low costs ranged from \$60.00 for an Elgin Senior to \$20.30

possibly up to \$90.00, for expenses not covered by public funds, many Freshmen will be embarrassed and many will be "left out." When a Senior in a similar school must pay from \$50.00 to \$100.00 in order to enjoy the full privileges and benefits of the school, including graduation expenses, many students will never become Seniors, and many Seniors will not be graduated. Numbers of graduates will have



bitter memories mixed with the sweet.

It is high time for public schools to take stock of the activities carried on by them or in their name that mortify the nonaffluent students or that operate in other ways to lower the genuine democracy of public education. This is especially true of those activities that put high-school graduation on an economic basis. It is perhaps not too much to say that the educational validity of every activity should be brought into question. Those which fail to meet this test should be eliminated, and those which are educationally defensible should be paid for from regular school revenues and not by the student. A process along these lines was successfully carried out in Rochester, Minnesota, a few years ago, under the skilful leadership of the principal of the senior high school. A slight increase in the millage was adequate to insure full participation of every stu-

dent in the various aspects of school life and to avoid embarrassment and denial of privilege to the least economically favored.<sup>3</sup> Such a program necessarily would be brought along slowly and carefully.

Granted that disagreement will continue to exist in regard to the provision of certain items at public expense—for instance, class rings—we cannot consistently claim a democratic philosophy of education and, at the same time, operate the schools in such a way that purely educational advantages are lost to certain students for economic reasons. Whatever is carried out in public high schools in the name of education must be made available to all students. In no other way can free public education be made free indeed.

<sup>3</sup> Minard W. Stout, "Managing the Activity Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (March, 1948), 4-12.

# SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

PAUL B. JACOBSON  
*University of Oregon*

ROBERT R. WIEGMAN  
*Portland State Extension Center*

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THE NUMBER of articles published in the area of secondary-school organization and administration during the year covered by this bibliography precludes listing all those of

merit. The articles that are included are, in the opinion of the compilers, representative of the material published during the twelve-month period from July, 1953, through June, 1954.

## ORGANIZATION

### GENERAL

585. KRUG, EDWARD A.; LIDDLE, CLIFFORD S.; and SCHENK, QUENTIN F. "Multiple-Period Classes in Wisconsin," *Educational Leadership*, XI (March, 1954), 363-67.

A fact-finding phase of a study of high-school organizational patterns opening the way toward curriculum modifications which may be made possible by multiple-period classes.

586. PARKER, J. CECIL, and EDWARDS, T. BENTLEY. "Schools for Adolescents: Organization," *Review of Educational Research*, XXIV (February, 1954), 74-82.

A comprehensive survey of related research and a detailed listing of sources but with minimal comment and explanation.

587. RESEARCH DIVISION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. "Antifraternity Rules," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Prin-*

*cipals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 80-95.

Describes the development of fraternities and cites United States Supreme Court rulings against fraternities. Also gives, for each state, the statutes and reference codes, along with applicable court rulings.

588. RICHARDSON, W. C. "Trends in Public School Education in England," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXVII (September, 1953), 4-15.

A discussion of the purposes and organization of private and public schools in England. Their cultural significance and the characteristics favorable to their survival are described.

589. TARBET, DONALD G. "What Auxiliary Services Are Needed?" *High School Journal*, XXXVII (October, 1953), 20-24.

A brief summary of auxiliary services which might be included in a complete school program.

## JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

590. AMUNDSON, CARL L. "Scheduling Classes in the Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIX (May, 1954), 281-83.

Reviews basic steps in planning class schedules to meet needs of pupils and to offer them some choice.

591. FOUTS, CLARK M. "Trends in the Junior High School Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 9-21.

A historical survey of the development of the junior high school and a presentation of arguments for and against integrated programs.

592. GAUMNITZ, WALTER H., and HULL, J. DAN. "Junior High School versus the Traditional (8-4) High School Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 112-21. (Also in Circular No. 373, 1953, United States Office of Education, and in *American Teacher*, XXXVIII [November, 1953], 6-9.)

Indicates trends away from 8-4 plan, but lists several major advantages of each organizational plan.

593. GRUHN, HERMAN A., and FENN, HERBERT J. "A Homeroom Can Be the Heart of a Junior High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIX (May, 1954), 277-80.

Summarizes the purposes of a home-room program and suggests aids for effective implementation.

594. GRUHN, WILLIAM T. "Some Significant Developments in Junior High School Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (April, 1954), 340-47.

Reports observations of current practices in junior high schools based on visitations to the schools.

595. KOOS, LEONARD V. "Junior High School Reorganization after a Half-Century," *School Review*, LXI (October, November, and December, 1953), 393-99, 479-87, 527-40.

The authoritative statement on the development and present condition of the junior high school.

## JUNIOR COLLEGE

596. "A Junior College Check List," *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (April, 1954), 476-83.

Suggests a check list of guiding principles for improving the effectiveness of an educational institution.

597. BOREN, CLAUDE B. "Why a Junior College Movement?" *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (February, 1954), 345-57.

Considers the social factors contributing to the development of the junior college.

598. RICHARDSON, OTIS DUNBAR. "A Crisis in the Norwegian Folk High Schools," *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (December, 1953), 225-32.

Parallels drawn between folk schools and American junior colleges are used to illustrate adaptive changes necessary for the existence of each.

599. ROLAND, LEO J. "Professional Preparation of Junior College Administrators," *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (October, 1953), 72-80.

Reports the findings of a questionnaire study concerning the academic backgrounds, work experiences, and opinions of 136 junior-college administrators in 14 states.

600. TEAD, ORDWAY. "A Junior College for Your Daughter?" *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (October, 1953), 65-71.

Emphasizes the unique and definite mission of the private junior college.

601. "What Educational Program for the 13th and 14th Years—The Commu-

nity College or Junior College?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (April, 1954), 75-78.

Suggests criteria for evaluating a community college and points out that one of its important functions is that of preparing youth for further college work.

#### ARTICULATION

602. BLEIFELD, MAURICE. "Articulation of High School and Junior High School," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXV (September, 1953), 53-56.

Reports the deliberations of a conference held to improve teaching and guidance in high-school biology and junior high school general science.

603. "Curriculum Development and School-College Relations: A Symposium," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (April, 1954), 302-8.

Will French, Charles W. Sanford, Leon S. Waskin, and T. Harry Broad discuss organization for curriculum improvement, programs for nonacademic students, and mutual problems of schools and colleges.

604. GERRITZ, E. M. "Easing Transition from High School to College," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 98-101.

Identifies and discusses seven recent developments which can definitely improve high-school-college relations.

605. HUNT, HEROLD C. "Problems of Articulation between High School and College," *Educational Forum*, XVIII (March, 1954), 281-85.

Points out that changing ratios of high-school and college attendance pose new problems if counseling procedures and administrative practices are to aid pupils effectively in the transition from high school to college.

#### RURAL EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

606. DAWSON, HOWARD A. "Developments in Rural Areas," *School Executive*, LXXIII (January, 1954), 79-81.

Maintains that the developments in rural life and education have brought forward perhaps the most urgent problem in American school administration today.

607. MORRIS, GLYN. "Resources for Guidance in Rural Areas," *NEA Journal*, XLIII (January, 1954), 17-18.

Claims that in every rural community there are numerous human and natural resources as yet untapped.

608. ZABEL, DONALD L. "Reorganization into Community Unit District Alters Activities," *School Activities*, XXV (December, 1953), 115-17.

Presents the major findings of a questionnaire study involving 110 community-unit district high-school administrators, who were asked to compare present extra-curriculum activity programs with those of former years.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

609. JONES, HERBERT B. "Industrial Arts Is Not Vocational Education," *Clearing House*, XXVIII (December, 1953), 205-8.

Explains the difference between the valuable but small-scale industrial-arts program and genuine vocational education, which is beyond the reach of the average high school.

610. PATTERSON, W. F. "Importance of Related Instruction to Apprenticeship," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XLIII (March, 1954), 66A.

Contends that continued co-operation between representatives of employers, labor, public apprenticeship agencies, and vocational-education leaders is necessary in order to provide adequate instruction.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 4 (Chitwood) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*.

## ADULT EDUCATION

611. "Community Development through Adult Education: A Symposium," *School Executive*, LXXIII (May, 1954), 71-83.

Reviews community projects; points out the part universities can play; describes the work of community councils; suggests how the schools can help rural communities; and describes programs in a large city system.

612. DAVISON, O. W. "Oklahoma Accepts Public School Responsibility for Adult Education," *School Executive*, LXXIII (September, 1953), 56-58.

Shows that adequate surveying of local needs and resources is a prerequisite to successful adult education.

613. NOURSE, LAURENCE G., and MAHONEY, WILLIAM M. "Adult Education on a Shoestring," *School Executive*, LXXIII (December, 1953), 47-49.

Points out that the enjoyment by adults of how-to-do-it classes and the resulting community interest in over-all school programs need not be hindered by a low budget.

614. RICH, KATHRYN. "In Adult Education, It's Mass Media Tools," *School Executive*, LXXIII (September, 1953), 82-83.

Argues that radio and television represent the most effective media for adult education.

## SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

615. AHRENS, MAURICE R. "Planning for the Reorganization of the Secondary School Program," *High School Journal*, XXXVII (May, 1954), 229-33.

Lists guiding principles for maintaining continuous staff and community support of curriculum reorganization.

616. BARNES, MELVIN W. "Learn To Use Plain Talk," *School Executive*, LXXIII (December, 1953), 50-51.

Contends that educators' failure to use language understood by laymen is one of the reasons why public education is haggard with attacks.

617. BISH, CHARLES E. "PTA Programs at the Senior High School Level," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 60-61.

Presents one school's solution to the problem of gaining active parent interest.

618. COCKING, WALTER D. "The School in the Community Family," *School Executive*, LXXIII (April, 1954), 7.

Points out that one community agency cannot develop without involving others and that, until there is mutual understanding of the work of all agencies and teamwork exists among them, little can be done to improve the whole community.

619. GANS, ROMA. "Issues in School-Community Relations," *Educational Leadership*, XI (February, 1954), 297-99.

Argues that only by facing fundamental issues squarely can school and communities work together effectively.

620. KOOPMAN, G. ROBERT. "A New Theoretical Approach to Secondary School Planning," *Nation's Schools*, LII (December, 1953), 50-57.

Proposes that essential learnings are most economically and efficiently achieved in self-contained classrooms within community-centered schools. Gives a novel approach to the construction and use of areas for specialized activities.

621. OWENS, ROBERT G. "Community Control of Public School Policies," *American School Board Journal*, CXXVIII (February, 1954), 51, 106.

Emphasizes that general control of school policy should be kept in the hands of the people but that no one group—religious, political, economic, or otherwise—should have the privilege of speaking for all the people.



622. SPEARS, HAROLD; SHAW, ARCHIBALD B.; KELLEY, EARL C.; MELBY, ERNEST O.; and MCCLAIN, JOSEPH C. "Reactions from the Field on G. R. Koopman's Approach to Secondary School Planning," *Nation's Schools*, LIII (January, 1954), 66-69.

Five authors present comments and criticisms of Koopman's article (Item 620 above).

623. WOLFF, MAX. "The School in the Com-

munity," *Teachers College Record*, LV (November, 1953), 97-100.

Illustrates a transition from community resentment of school-staff participation in community affairs to a recognition of the need for a wider role. A meeting to discuss bond-election failure started with opinions that the staff did not have enough teaching of the three R's to keep them busy. Community testimonials for specific examples of democratic community action through the school changed the outlook.

## ADMINISTRATION

### GENERAL<sup>2</sup>

624. BOWER, HOMER C., and OTHERS. "Making High School Schedules," *Educational Research Bulletin* (Pittsburgh Schools), XXVIII (March-April, 1954), 97-109.

A comprehensive survey of problems in terms of the over-all schedule and of individual pupil assignment. Generous inclusion of illustrative charts and forms.

625. DAVIS, H. CURTIS. "Where Does the Time Go?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVIII (October, 1953), 347-61.

The preliminary report of a detailed time study by three hundred high-school principals. More complete reports will appear in subsequent issues.

626. DOUGLASS, HARL R. *Modern Administration of Secondary Schools: A Revision and Extension of "Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools."* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1954. Pp. xii+602.

Discusses democratic trends in administration and supervision, interrelations of administrative officers, and administrative problems.

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 11 (Knight) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 569 (McFarland) in the list appearing in the September, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

627. EDMONSON, J. B. "Professional Strategy for the School Administrator," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 34-36.

Summarizes observations concerning professional strategy and points out that good strategy may spell the difference between unhappy or happy experiences as a school administrator.

628. GRIEDER, CALVIN, and ROSENSTENGEL, WILLIAM EVERETT. *Public School Administration*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1954. Pp. xii+622.

Discusses the achievements of modern administration and analyzes those administrative activities which can be improved. Contains numerous examples of both wise and undesirable techniques to guide the administrator in making everyday decisions.

629. LEIPOLD, L. E. "You Either Have the Right—or You Don't: 20 Common Points of School Law," *Clearing House*, XXVIII (October, 1953), 69-77.

Summary of legal opinions regarding several cases of controversial home-school responsibilities and rights.

630. PRICE, HUGH G. "The Role of Administration in Excellent Teaching," *Junior College Journal*, XXIV (September, 1953), 37-42.

Describes administrative roles in establishing a climate for learning and in encouraging personnel security and professional growth.

631. WETZLER, WILSON F. "Use of Job Analysis towards More Effective Educational Administrative Practices," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XL (February, 1954), 113-16.

The need to avoid overlapping functions and to clarify responsibilities is presented and steps in job analysis are explained.

#### DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

632. COULTER, KENNETH. "You Can't Organize Democracy," *School Executive*, LXXIII (February, 1954), 50-51.

Discusses seven facets of democracy. Emphasizes that organization can help, but only after there is some understanding of the meaning of democracy.

633. NADLER, MAURICE. "Democratic vs. Autocratic School Administration," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 22-25.

Compares the characteristics of a school system designed to prepare youth for life in a democracy with the characteristics of a school system designed to prepare youth for life in a totalitarian state.

634. WETZLER, WILSON F. "Administering Schools by Staff Dynamics," *American School Board Journal*, CXXVIII (April, 1954), 27-28.

Describes the dynamic nature of staff behavior and shows how the use of newer democratic techniques will facilitate better performance.

635. WILES, KIMBALL. "Where Does Co-operation Start?" *Educational Leadership*, XI (February, 1954), 307-10.

A summary of the qualities of leadership and conditions which contribute toward co-operative approaches to educational problems.

#### PUPIL PERSONNEL<sup>1</sup>

636. DAVIS, FRANK G. "What Do You Mean—Pupil Personnel Services?" *Clearing House*, XXVIII (October, 1953), 85-88.

Defines pupil personnel services and discusses fourteen activities and services usually considered to belong to this classification.

637. FOUTS, CLARK M. "The Role of the Junior High School Principal in the Guidance Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (February, 1954), 1-8.

Discusses the basic elements of an organized guidance program.

638. FOX, MILDRED G. "Providing for the Gifted," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVII (November, 1953), 78-81.

A discussion of scheduling and school organization devised for teaching superior students.

639. MCGEE, GEORGE A. "We Increased Our Holding Power with Our Secondary-School Students," *NEA Journal*, XLII (November, 1953), 482.

Tells how curriculum modification and an expanded year-round guidance program in one school served to reduce the tendency of less competent students to be forced prematurely into adult problems. Little specific organizational detail is offered, but an adequate statement of the problem is given.

640. MCQUAGGE, CARL. "This High School Uses Two Grades per Course," *Nation's Schools*, LII (August, 1953), 48-49.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 43 (Strang) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1954, issue of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 533 (Odell) in the list appearing in the September, 1954, issue of the *School Review*.

Discusses the use of *A* to *F* performance marks on comparative achievement accompanied by *S* and *U* ratings of performance-capacity ratio.

641. MINOTTI, VICTOR. "Identifying Good School Citizens," *School Review*, LXII (February, 1954), 78-86.

Reports the findings of a free-response questionnaire study designed to identify good school citizens.

#### DISCIPLINE

642. GARBER, LEE O. "The Teacher's Right To Administer Corporal Punishment," *Nation's Schools*, LIII (February, 1954), 83-84.

A court case clarifies responsibilities and limitations of a teacher's standing *in loco parentis*.

643. LYNCH, JAMES M., JR. "For Good Discipline, You Must Plan," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXVIII (March, 1954), 56-59.

Reports a number of conclusions drawn from a continuing study of students who get into difficulties at school.

644. RACINE PRINCIPALS' COUNCIL, RACINE, WISCONSIN. "A Policy Statement on Discipline," *Clearing House*, XXVIII (May, 1954), 518-19.

Suggests six basic guides which will help in developing good discipline.

#### STAFF RELATIONS

645. FURJANICK, PRISCILLA S. "A Substitute Considers the Substitute," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XL (March, 1954), 163-67.

Outlines an in-service training program for more effective substitute teaching.

646. GRIFFITHS, DANIEL E. "Some Practices That Really Improve Staff Relations," *Nation's Schools*, LII (August, 1953), 41.

Summarizes teacher suggestions for more effective administration guidance in staff

relations. Offers no new ideas or comprehensive research summary, but gives eleven general suggestions.

647. HARRIS, RAYMOND P. "There's a Right Way To Obtain General Agreement at Faculty Meetings," *Nation's Schools*, LIII (March, 1954), 86-88.

States that small gatherings and study groups can use the technique of general consensus more effectively than they can use parliamentary procedures.

#### PUBLIC RELATIONS<sup>4</sup>

648. BALDWIN, ROBERT D. "Teaming Up for Better Schools," *American School Board Journal*, CXXII (November, 1953), 27-28.

Sets forth some of the important duties, responsibilities, limitations, and relations of boards of education, the public, and profession.

649. CHARTERS, W. W., JR. "In a Public Relations Program Facts Are Never Enough," *Nation's Schools*, LIII (February, 1954), 56-58.

Discusses four major reasons why presentation of the facts is not conducive to opinion change. Points out that confirmed opinions are changed only by analysis of, and concentration upon, underlying forces which give them support.

650. HULL, J. H. "The Open Door Policy Is Not Enough," *School Executive*, LXXII (August, 1953), 58-59.

Emphasizes two-way public relations and the importance of child-centered, community-centered purposes for schools.

651. JELINEK, JAMES J. "Let Folks Know about Your High School," *School and Community*, XL (January, 1954), 8-9.

Offers a check list that may be used to poll the community to determine what information schools should present to patrons.

<sup>4</sup> See also Item 627 in this list.

652. LARSEN, ROY E. "Citizen Participation in 1953," *School Executive*, LXXIII (January, 1954), 52-54.

Reports the activities of citizens' committees and points out how such groups have begun to shift their efforts toward long-range programs of school improvement.

653. MEYER, AGNES E. "An Appeal for Common Sense," *Educational Leadership*, XI (October, 1953), 28-35.

Defines modern "vigilantism" and presents positive ways that schools can meet current unjustified attacks.

654. MORRISON, WILMA. "Reporting the Schools," *Oregon Education Journal*, XXVIII (February, 1954), 4-6, 31.

A journalist explains how schools may help the development of a responsible press interested in the fair presentation of school news.

655. SUMPTION, MERLE R. "Who Does What in a Citizens Survey?" *School Executive*, LXXIII (November, 1953), 58.

Outlines a working guide for conducting citizen surveys and stresses the value of setting up definite areas of responsibility which are agreed upon at the outset by the parties concerned.

#### STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

656. ACKERLUND, GEORGE C. "A High School Diploma for Whom?" *School Executive*, LXXIII (November, 1953), 43-45.

Contends that the highest standard any high school can attain would be reached if the school (1) provided educational opportunities for every student according to his needs and capacities, (2) made the elimination of failure a school policy, and (3) did everything possible to keep students in school through graduation.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

BERNARD E. MELAND, *Higher Education and the Human Spirit*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+204. \$4.00.

Bernard Meland, a liberal theologian whose scholarly base is poetry and philosophy rather than Holy Writ, has presented in *Higher Education and the Human Spirit* an eloquently written argument on some basic issues of life and thought which deserves careful reading and wide discussion. Let me hasten to add that the argument is not primarily "religious" or theological; still less is it concerned with the content and values of the Christian tradition or with the necessity of re-introducing the Christian faith into the modern university—as was, for instance, true of Sir Walter Moberly's notable volume of a few years back, *The Crisis in the University* (London: Student Christian Movement Press, 1949). Moreover, its implications are much broader than "higher" education despite the explicit restriction of the title.

Meland's starting point is the question: "What kinds of knowledge do we have?" Several types are distinguished, one of them, of course, being the "scientific," which he tends unfortunately to equate with quantitative measurement. (Of this, more later.) This blemish is not fatal to his position, however. The form of knowledge or the mode of thought which he is most interested in exploring lies, so he believes, beyond the realm of the concrete, the quantitative, and the scientifically verifiable. Following William James, he speaks of this as the "fringe" of perceptive intuition that envisions essential relations through the imaginative identification of the observer with the subject. This

property is christened "the appreciative consciousness" and is discussed as follows:

Finally, the appreciative consciousness must be seen as a disciplined, co-ordinated working of the mind and sensitivities in a way that embraces the relevant and decisive factors in a situation, however clear or unfocused these factors may be. In parting company with the insistent concern to attend only to clear and distinct ideas, the appreciative consciousness is motivated by a reconception of the realities we experience, and of the nature of truth pertaining to these realities. It is in the complexity of meaning, arising from the interrelation of facts and forces, which arrests its attention. For it is by apprehending the signs and intimations which are constantly occurring within this complexity that one comes upon the truth of any situation. These signs and intimations are always of a transitive and relational character. They are discerned, not in the noting or measuring of fixed facts, but in the attending to the process wherein facts are moving toward new facts or toward a new status by reason of other facts or other circumstances [pp. 77-78].

As the reader can readily appreciate, there is, first of all, the problem of discerning precisely what the author means by this and similar passages. In a rough, approximate fashion, most of us would subscribe to the proposition that many of the acts we undertake and the policies we recommend are not based on scientific evidence and, indeed, frequently deal with ranges of phenomena where precise knowledge is unavailable and perhaps unobtainable. Whether this realm lies, in any sense, "beyond" science is difficult to determine; but, in any event, it involves abilities, such as insight, prediction, and (sometimes) low animal cunning, markedly different from those which appear to be



required in the formation of principles based upon verifiable evidence. I submit that what the author is talking about in the long chapter devoted to "the appreciative consciousness" could best be translated as "judgment" or perhaps "creative judgment." Admittedly, this translation sacrifices some of the overtones attached to the concept in the original discussion.

When faced with a problem, we draw upon the findings of science—when they are available and applicable—and combine them with the data of experience, together with sundry other random hunches, intimations, and recollections, to form a workable idea consistent with the values we hope to realize from the successful conquest of our difficulty. That leap of the imagination by which we do this I call "creative judgment." It closely resembles the act of artistic creation and, indeed, is ultimately guided by the same set of norms, namely, elegance and simplicity.

The difference between scientific analysis and creative judgment is that the former *abstracts* from the total situation elements which act consistently and whose behavior can, within limits, be predicted; judgment deals with the whole situation, synthesizing the findings of the various sciences and adding some other ingredients whose nature depends upon the specific features of the problem at hand. As an illustration of this distinction, the formidable array of objective data which a dedicated social scientist would amass about a community are contrasted by Meland with the meaningful insights at which a novelist would arrive through sympathetic understanding of the life of the group as a whole.

Much of what Meland says under that heading strikes a responsive chord in this particular reviewer, but I believe his position could validly be extended in at least two directions.

On the one hand, the construction of scientific theory, in itself, demands an act of creative judgment. (The author mentions this fact briefly at one point, but he ignores

it thereafter and is generally disposed to regard science as mere measuring and categorizing of empirical uniformities.) Devising a scientific hypothesis is similar to creating a work of art. A leap of the imagination is involved in making relevant abstractions as well as in securing meaningful understandings of the total situation in all its vagueness and generality.

On the other hand, the main problem involved in all of this is how to develop the art of creative judgment ("appreciative consciousness") so that it can be communicated from those who command a great deal of it to those who possess little or none. The author's description of this terrain is disappointingly vague, as befits a prophet speaking of the promised land. Several clues are offered, but none are pursued very far. One of the more persistent suggestions for achieving the type of insight in question is that we project ourselves into the situations of the objects we are investigating. Such a projection is a spiritual first cousin to the "reflective sympathy" which Adam Smith adumbrated as the basis of ethical conduct in his early work, *The Theory of Moral Sentiments*. I suspect that this would involve a severe strain on our imaginative capacities as applied to the study of primitive religions or ancient civilizations. Moreover, are we certain that we are not carrying some extraneous intellectual baggage with us as we make the journey? For example, can we ever understand what "religion" meant to bygone civilizations, imbedded as we are in our own conceptions of faith? Indeed, the word *religion* may be a profound misnomer when attached to any of the institutions of preliterate peoples.

What is the significance of Meland's argument for students of the educative process? Manifestly, if the act of judgment is the most important avenue to knowledge, it behooves us to design our curriculum accordingly. The author recommends that, at the level of higher education, we prepare ourselves to ascend to this pinnacle by increased emphasis upon

the field of the humanities. And not only a change of emphasis is called for, but also a shift in orientation in the study of art, music, and literature. It is recommended that these areas be cultivated from the point of view of their potential contribution to the wisdom of life—as examples of how to “see life clearly and see it whole.”

Now, some of these recommendations are familiar gospel, though here approached by a somewhat unfamiliar route. To much of the book, I say “Amen.” Again, however, the manner and the essential detail of the reform are not developed. Many of us have vague intimations that we are neglecting the humanistic studies in the training both of youth and of mature adults, and some of us may apprehend rather clearly the dangers of our neglect. How do we proceed from that judgment to the actual redesigning of the content of studies in the university, given the multitude of other legitimate demands upon the training process and the varieties of programs appropriate for different institutions to offer?

PROCTER THOMSON

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STEPHEN A. ROMINE, *Building the High School Curriculum*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1954. Pp. xii+520. \$5.50.

*Building the High School Curriculum* is a comprehensive survey of the secondary-school curriculum and all its interrelationships.

There are five parts to this volume. Part I, “Orientation,” includes material on the challenges which face the curriculum, some of the basic assumptions which underlie the curriculum, and the general characteristics of the existing secondary-school curriculum. Part II, “Curriculum Foundations,” presents the four fundamental bases essential to curricular structure, namely, the evolutionary development of the curriculum; the social order; the learner; and the learning process. Part III, “Structuring the Curriculum,”

is concerned with the actual development of the curriculum itself. This part includes one chapter on purposes and five chapters on the know-how of curriculum development, that is, the methods of selecting and organizing curriculum materials and experiences, of constructing and using resource and instructional units, and of building the core curriculum. Part IV, “Curricular Relationships in School and Community,” presents the many other aspects of the school and community which have a bearing upon the curriculum. These aspects include instructional procedures, student activities, guidance and work experience, the school community and curriculum building, and the administration of curriculum revision. The final part, Part V, “A Look Ahead,” suggests trends, indicates some possible danger signs ahead, and points out the challenge of the future.

This is indeed a comprehensive survey of the secondary-school curriculum and its related aspects. For the experienced worker there is clearly presented a tremendous amount of material which could be of great use.

In his Preface the author states that the book is “designed for use in college and university classes and as a handbook for those actively engaged in curriculum building in the field—administrators and supervisors, as well as teachers” (p. v). Consequently the reviewer would like to evaluate this volume in the light of its use in a college or university class in curriculum. While Romine does not indicate whether this volume is to be used as a basic textbook, one of the criteria for the selection of texts which he quotes might be of interest to us, namely, “competence and background of the author or authors” (p. 386).

If we consider this criterion, certainly the question must be raised whether it is possible for any one author to possess all the knowledge necessary to turn out an adequate volume on such a comprehensive basis. For example, the material in chapter v, “The Learner as a Basis for Curriculum Building,” includes ideas on the nature of adolescence,

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variations among learners, methods of studying the adolescent, and implications for curriculum building. Again, chapter xiii, "Instructional Procedures and the Curriculum," includes material on the instructional process, controversial issues, the selection and utilization of textbooks, the library, audio-visual materials, and community resources. In both of these chapters, however, there are still gaps from some points of view. In chapter v no material is presented which views the child from the psychoanalytic framework, although many authorities feel that this is very enlightening. And, in chapter xiii no mention is made of the whole area of group behavior and human dynamics in the classroom.

Also, much of the material is so comprehensive that it has been presented by merely listing ideas or concepts. This method of presenting material is not satisfactory, particularly for one who believes that, if knowledge is to be adequately understood, the learner must know the methods which were used to derive the knowledge.

It is on another point, however, that the reviewer is most doubtful of the usefulness of this volume for basic training in curriculum. Romine indicates one of the limitations of a textbook to be "the tendency of textbooks to be limited in terms of scope, sequence, point of view, coverage, context, etc., to the author's concept" (p. 384).

What is the author's basic concept of the curriculum? Romine states:

A major thesis of this book has been that of focusing attention upon the interaction of the learner and his total environment. Another has been that of utilizing sound principles of education in structuring and implementing the curriculum and the third calls for attention to the social order in which we live. . . . it is proposed that units of work may be classified on a scale which recognizes two major foci of extremes with regard to sources, outcomes, organizations, and implementation: (1) subject-centered, (2) situation-centered. . . .

It is hoped that the reader in considering these two foci (and recognizing that they are ex-

trêmes) will endeavor to develop and teach units which can more nearly be identified as situation-centered because of the advantages which such units possess [p. 267].

Clearly, from this quoted material, the author has a point of view, and one which should be questioned.

Once again in the field of education one senses that a volume indicates not merely a difference of emphasis with regard to the many issues, problems, and techniques of curriculum construction, but rather unstated fundamental differences which go back to differences about the purposes of education and the nature of learning. At the Ninth Annual Conference on Higher Education, Clarence Faust, in discussing this same problem of basic fundamental differences, suggested:

What is required and indeed urgently demanded, it seems to me, is an attempt to uncover these basic questions, to make a more penetrating and thoroughgoing analysis of them, and to reformulate our problems at a more fundamental level than we presently achieve.<sup>1</sup>

This, of course, is no new idea. John Dewey stated:

The basic question concerns the nature of education with no qualifying adjectives prefixed. What we want and need is education pure and simple, and we shall make surer and faster progress when we devote ourselves to finding out just what education is and what conditions have to be satisfied in order that education may be a reality and not a name or slogan.<sup>2</sup>

And this is the type of curriculum volume needed for educating students.

LOUISE L. TYLER

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<sup>1</sup> Clarence H. Faust, "Specialization and the Liberal Arts in Higher Education," *Current Issues in Higher Education*, 1945, p. 5. Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, March 4-6, 1954. Edited by G. Kerry Smith. Washington: Association for Higher Education, 1954.

<sup>2</sup> John Dewey, *Experience and Education*, p. 116. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

FREDERICK W. COZENS and FLORENCE SCOVIL STUMPF, *Sports in American Life*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. x+366. \$5.00.

The growing recognition of the place of sports in the heritage and present milieu of life in the United States is excellently set forth in *Sports in American Life*. The authors have brought their years of experience as participants, teachers, leaders, and spectators to bear upon the problem of summarizing the role of sports in many phases of American life. Believing that sports and recreation belong with the arts of humanity and that such activities have formed a basic part of all cultures and of all racial groups, the authors have set themselves to the task of illuminating the sociological significance of an essential aspect of our culture.

Using chapter ii as a frame of reference for the chapters which follow, the authors have selected for emphasis those areas of the culture which seem to have greatest bearing upon the prominence of vigorous physical sports in the life of our people. They have ruled out matters of geographical environment because of our ease of communication and transportation. Also ruled out as a prime factor influencing our great devotion to sports is the high level of nutrition and energy of our people. Perhaps this energy level of our people has been too lightly dismissed as a factor, for vigorous sports involve physical endurance and there is at least a possibility that those nations in which the bulk of the people have a low energy level are the nations where gymnastics, rather than sports, still have strong appeal.

A number of factors are held responsible for our love of vigorous sports. The Declaration of Independence, for instance, by its emphasis on "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness," gave a stimulus to civic improvement and provision of recreation facilities in our cities. Industry recognized the importance of recreation programs for employees. Changes in our philosophy of education reacting to changes in living conditions

brought modified curriculums and methods in our public schools. Our churches altered their attitudes toward play and began to make definite provisions for recreation of young people. Ease of communication (through newspapers, radio, and television) and the automobile have helped spread our interests in sports of all sorts. Government has shown an increasing feeling of responsibility for providing recreation for the people, as evidenced by use of municipal, state, and federal tax money in promoting public recreation. Still other factors responsible for the place of sports in American life have been the two world wars, the "narrowing gap between rich and poor," and the influence of democratic concepts and ideals of sportsmanship.

The greater part of the book is devoted to chapters supporting and expounding the concepts mentioned above. Thus, chapters iii and iv deal with the changing pattern of family life and the growing place of sports in family activities. A chapter is devoted to telling of the recreation programs of industry and of our large labor organizations.

The role of the school in the sports life of America is well handled. An excellent analysis is made of the causes of changes in our school curriculums, especially in physical education. In that field, school gymnastics were supplanted by a sports curriculum, and education for wise use of leisure began to be recognized as a function of schools.

Several chapters are devoted to describing the role of various means of communication in molding public opinion about sports. The peculiarly American sports page and the periodicals devoted to sports comprise the subjects of chapters of most interesting reading. Those of us interested in the problems of television and its effect on American life will profit by reading the book's excellent analysis of problems in that area.

The observations and interpretations set forth in the text have been documented and supported by a carefully prepared bibliography occupying some forty-five pages of the

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book. A good index also adds to the value of the work as a source book for the general reader and for students in sociology, physical education, and recreation.

Throughout *Sports in American Life* the authors have most admirably viewed and analyzed background, present status, and trends with a scientific, impartial attitude. They have set forth the widening opportunity for sharing the sports life of the nation and have shown clearly the place of American sports in a changing world culture. They have made a strong case for the democratizing influence of spectator sports in American culture.

The readers of *Sports in American Life* cannot help but be impressed by the scholarly treatment which the authors have given the subject. They will feel, with your reviewer, that this is a book to be read by any student of life in this country who desires a clearer understanding of our culture. The authors and publisher are to be commended for bringing forth a book destined for recognition as a publication of merit.

D. K. BRACE

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WILLIAM J. REILLY, *Career Planning for High School Students*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1953. Pp. xii+110. \$2.00.

Any intelligent effort to help adolescents orient themselves to vocational life should be encouraged. So many adults at present are poorly adjusted to the work in which they are engaged that attempts to give young people a clear preview of what is involved should be applauded. How to assist the high-school student to gain such a view needs to be considered.

The vocational-guidance movement has evolved from the mere providing of descriptions of occupations to a serious attempt to help the individual diagnose his interests, aptitudes, achievement, and personality traits in terms of the specifications of par-

ticular vocations. This matching of men and jobs is not a simple process. It is most certainly more complicated than having successful workers describe their jobs to youth on "career" days. This is not to imply that "career" days do no good, for many of them are very helpful, especially to those young people who possess little or no information about the work-a-day world. This type of information-giving to young people tends, however, to oversimplify the problem. Enough is now known about the use of standardized tests and interviewing techniques to give the individual rather clear concepts of how his interests, aptitudes, achievements, and personality traits compare with those of his peers and how they fit into the requirements of given occupations. Obtaining this understanding involves more than descriptive data about vocations and a self-analysis by the individual.

These preliminary remarks are meant to establish the reviewer's basis for estimating the kind of contribution made by William J. Reilly to the field of vocational guidance through his recent publication, *Career Planning for High School Students*. Reilly does more than disperse worth-while information. The book is addressed directly to the high-school student, and its primary purpose is "to present the tested methods and the fundamental principles of career planning which have been successfully used by thousands of men and women in various age and occupational groups" (p. x). The method which the author advances is self-analysis, and his method rests on the assumption "that sound career planning starts with a study of the individual—his innermost desires, his basic abilities, and his strengths and weaknesses in human relations" (p. x).

With this assumption in view, the author states four methodological principles by means of which the student may plan his career:

- Step 1. Observing and analyzing the facts
- Step 2. Defining the real problem and considering possible solutions



Step 3. Securing evidence on possible solutions  
Step 4. Arriving at a sound conclusion [p. 20]

The rest of the book is an elaboration of these principles and shows in great detail how the student is to apply them to his vocational problems. "Assignments" are provided which enable the student to assess himself in terms of these principles and which will tend to place the individual in a position to choose a career more wisely than he might otherwise do. The author is sound in his attempt to have the individual do some thinking for himself rather than to accept passively advice about selecting a career, though such advice, when the author gives it, seems sound. Some of the "assignments" might prove frustrating to the typical high-school pupil, who does not know his ability in certain areas or whose interests are rather broad

and not too sharply defined. Some traits are best understood vocationally by comparing them with those of one's peers through the use of standardized tests and counseling. Self-analysis in regard to these traits is difficult, if not impossible.

The book generally is written in a vein that should prove interesting and stimulating to high-school students. The style is of great value if it leads him to the counselor, who can direct him to a more thoroughgoing analysis and synthesis of his interests, aptitudes, and personal traits with vocational requirements. The method which the author advocates, however, seems too narrow in its implicit rejection of other techniques of vocational guidance which are both valuable and necessary.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

University of Chicago

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

*Americana as Taught to the Tune of a Hickory Stick.* Compiled by W. W. LIVENGOOD. New York 13: Women's National Book Association (% Lillian Glaser, 99 Hudson Street), 1954. Pp. x+70.

ANDREWS, GLADYS. *Creative Rhythmic Movement for Children.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954. Pp. x+198. \$4.75.

*The Audio-visual Reader.* Edited by JAMES KINDER and F. DEAN MCCLUSKY. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. (915 Main Street), 1954. Pp. xiv+382. \$5.75.

*Aviation in School and Community.* Edited by H. E. MEHRENS. Washington 6: American Council on Education in cooperation with Civil Aeronautics Administration, 1954. Pp. xii+100. \$1.50.

COOPER, SHIRLEY, and FITZWATER, CHARLES O. *County School Administration.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. xiv+566. \$5.00.

EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. *Communism in Ed-*

*ucation in Asia, Africa and the Far Pacific.* Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1954. Pp. x+246. \$3.00.

EWING, IRENE R., and EWING, A. W. G. *Speech and the Deaf Child.* Washington 7: Volta Bureau, [n.d.]. Pp. xii+256.

*The Handbook of Private Schools: An Annual Descriptive Survey of Independent Education.* Boston 8: Porter Sargent, 1954 (35th edition). Pp. 1228. \$8.00.

HILLIARD, PAULINE. *Improving Social Learnings in the Elementary School.* Teachers College Studies in Education. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. Pp. x+144. \$2.85.

HOLLISTER, GEORGE E., and GUNDERSON, AGNES G. *Teaching Arithmetic in Grades I and II.* Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1954. Pp. 168. \$2.50.

HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. *The Emerging Self in School and Home.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1954. Pp. xii+366. \$4.50.

*The Integrated Curriculum at Work.* Edited by SISTER MARY JANET MILLER. The

- Proceedings of the Workshop on Integration at Work in the Catholic Secondary School Curriculum, conducted at the Catholic University of America from June 12 to June 23, 1953. Washington 17: Catholic University of America Press, 1954. Pp. xii+258. \$3.25.
- International Aspects of Librarianship*. Papers Presented before the Eighteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Edited by LEON CARNOVSKY. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1954. Pp. viii+124. \$4.00.
- KETTELKAMP, GILBERT C. *Teaching Adolescents*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1954. Pp. x+550. \$5.00.
- LA BARRE, WESTON. *The Human Animal*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1954. Pp. xvi+372. \$6.00.
- LEONARD, EDITH M.; VANDEMAN, DOROTHY D.; and MILES, LILLIAN E. *Counseling with Parents in Early Childhood Education*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1954. Pp. viii+330. \$3.75.
- LEWIS, CLAUDIA. *Writing for Young Children*. New York 20: Simon & Schuster, 1954. Pp. xii+116. \$3.00.
- MCMILLAN, BROCKWAY; GRANT, DAVID A.; FITTS, PAUL M.; FRICK, FREDERICK C.; MCCULLOCH, WARREN S.; MILLER, GEORGE A.; and BROSN, HENRY W. *Current Trends in Information Theory*. Seven Lectures under the Auspices of the Department of Psychology in The College of the University of Pittsburgh Delivered during February 20 and 21, 1953, in the Stephen Collins Foster Memorial. Pittsburgh 13: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1954. Pp. xvi+188. \$4.00.
- MACOMBER, FREEMAN GLENN. *Principles of Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York 3: American Book Co., 1954. Pp. viii+328. \$3.75.
- MORT, PAUL R., and VINCENT, WILLIAM S. *Introduction to American Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954. Pp. xii+436. \$4.75.
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